

For Reference

NOT TO BE TAKEN FROM THIS ROOM

For Reference

NOT TO BE TAKEN FROM THIS ROOM

Ex libris
UNIVERSITATIS
ALBERTAENSIS



THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

A SOCIOLOGICAL SURVEY OF TEACHERS FROM INDIA
TEACHING IN ALBERTA--1958-1965

by

RAJINDER SINGH PANNU

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF MASTER OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

October, 1966

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA
FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "A Sociological Survey of Teachers From India Teaching in Alberta--1958-1965" submitted by Rajinder Singh Pannu in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

ABSTRACT

This is a study in the sociology of immigrant professionals, a category of migrant individuals, which has acquired an increasing international significance in the present era of rapid industrialization. The subjects of the study were 71 teachers from India teaching in Alberta in 1964-65. The study focussed on the social background and professional characteristics of the respondents, their motivations for migrating to Canada and Alberta, problems perceived by them in Alberta situations, their institutional integration and structural location in the Alberta Educational System. The study is descriptive and formulative. Data were obtained by questionnaire.

Analysis disclosed that respondents were predominantly male, on the average 34 years old, and married. More than half were from the Indian province of Punjab alone. They tended to come from the middle or upper class social strata. Most of them entertained high levels of social and occupational aspirations. In Alberta they tended to be concentrated in the pioneer fringe communities of the central, northern parts of Alberta. Few were teaching in cities. More than half held Alberta professional teaching certificates and taught in Senior High schools. In comparison with the Alberta teaching force the Indian teachers on the average had longer teaching experience, more university training and higher median salaries, though none were at the high and low extremes of the salary distribution for Alberta teachers. The major issues involved in the formal institutional integration

of Indian teachers in Alberta were the evaluation of Indian university degrees, proficiency in spoken English and the role of the two university courses required for certification.

Analysis of motivations for migration and perceptions of problems in Alberta showed that the most important motivations were of the "pull" rather than the "push" type. "Better opportunities" for advanced education and professional development, and "Financial gain" were the two most relevant and important. With regard to perception of problems in Alberta situations, the respondents perceived most relevant and important the problems of "Student Indifference" and "Excessive Work-load". Variables found most important in perceptual differences were age and religion of the respondents. However, sex, previous intercultural experience, grade level of teaching and school size also appeared to be important. Future plans of respondents indicated that Indian teachers in Alberta continue to have high levels of aspiration for occupational and social mobility.

The most important finding of this study was the indication about the bi-polar nature of the institutional integration of the immigrant teachers from India in the Alberta School System. They were integrated at the lowest level in terms of their ecological distribution in Alberta and at the middle level in the hierarchial structure of teaching positions in the profession.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The investigator wishes to express his sincere gratitude to his advisor, Dr. B. Y. Card, who provided indispensable advice, assistance and constructive criticism in the planning and writing of this study. Acknowledgments are also made of a careful reading of the final draft and the constructive suggestions made by Dr. G. Kupfer and Dr. B. E. Walker.

Sincere thanks are extended to all the teachers from India teaching in Alberta who provided the required information unreservedly and without whose cooperation this study would not have been possible.

A deep appreciation is also expressed to Mrs. Lea Watson whose untiring interest in the completion of this study and extreme promptness in typing added greatly to the compilation of this thesis.

The investigator wishes to express his grateful thanks to his wife, Swinder, his brother, Brinder, and many other friends who assisted in a number of ways during the work on this study.

And finally, the investigator wants to thank the Alberta Teachers' Association and the Alberta Department of Education who willingly cooperated in supplying much needed information.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. THE PROBLEM	1
Introduction	1
Statement of the Problem	3
Nature of the Study	4
A Note on Methodology	5
Overview of the Thesis	8
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	11
International Migration--An Introduction	12
Review of Some Studies	17
III. INDIAN MIGRATION OVERSEAS	28
History of Emigration from India with Particular Reference to North America	28
Emigration from India in General	30
Indian Immigration to Western Countries	34
Indian Immigration to North America	36
Migration of Professional Workers to Canada Since 1946	47
Migration of Indian Teachers to Canada and Especially to Alberta	52
Migration of Indian Teachers to Alberta	54
IV. ECOLOGY OF INDIAN TEACHERS IN ALBERTA (1964-65)	60
Distribution into Countries, School Divisions and School Districts	62
Location of Community Where Teaching	63
Kind of Community Where Teaching	73
Size of the Community	75

CHAPTER

Distance from Edmonton or Calgary (whichever is shorter)	78
Economic Wealth of the School Systems	80
Summary	82
V. BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF INDIAN TEACHERS . .	85
Sex and Age	86
Marital Status	88
Place of Origin in India	90
Rural-Urban Background	92
Social Class Background	94
Intergenerational Mobility	100
Education of Parents	103
Previous Intercultural Experience - Stay or Travel in Foreign Countries	106
Religion	107
Summary	108
VI. PROFESSIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TEACHERS . .	111
Years of Teaching Education	112
Highest Teaching Certificate	114
Teaching Experience	118
Salary	121
Teaching Position	123
Grade-level of Teaching	125
School Level	128
School Size	130
Major Subjects Taught	132
Teaching Experience Just Prior to Coming to Canada	135

CHAPTER	PAGE
Teaching Position	136
Level of School or Institution at Which Taught	137
Foreign Countries Where Taught	138
Total Length of Stay in Foreign Countries as Teacher	139
Occupational Background Before Joining Teaching Profession	140
Summary	142
VII. ENTRY OF INDIAN TEACHERS INTO THE ALBERTA SYSTEM OF EDUCATION	145
Certification of Indian Teachers in Alberta . . .	146
Some Problems in the Certification of Indian Teachers	148
Certification Courses and Indian Teachers	153
Recruitment of Indian Teachers to the Alberta School System	161
Summary	166
VIII. INDIAN TEACHERS' MOTIVATION FOR IMMIGRATION TO CANADA	169
Variable used in the Analysis of Data	170
Analysis of Data	176
Sex	182
Age	183
Urban Rural Background	185
Social class	186
Social Mobility	188
Religious Affiliation	190
Summary	192

CHAPTER	PAGE
IX. PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED BY AND FUTURE ASPIRATIONS OF INDIAN TEACHERS IN ALBERTA SCHOOLS	195
Variables used for Analysis	196
Analysis of Data on Problems	198
Sex	202
Age	204
Intercultural Experience	206
Religious Background	208
Distance of Community from Edmonton/Calgary	210
Kind of Community	213
Grade-Level of Teaching.	215
School Size.	216
Future Plans and Aspirations	220
Summary	229
X. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS	231
Summary of Findings	231
Specific Conclusions	238
General Conclusions	240
Implications for Future Policy	240
Suggested Hypotheses	242
BIBLIOGRAPHY	245
APPENDIX A - Questionnaire	253
APPENDIX B - The Proportion of "Teachers and Professors" in the Gross Immigration of Professional Workers to Canada Between 1946-65	264

	PAGE
APPENDIX C - List of School Divisions or Districts	
where respondents were employed in June, 1965	265
APPENDIX D - A Note on Classification of Indian	
Occupations	266

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER III

TABLE	PAGE
3.1 Indian Immigration to Canada Since 1957 Type of Professional Background of Immigrants by year of Entry.	51
3.2 Non-Alberta Teachers Who Received Alberta (Interim) Certification During Each Academic year (September 1 to June 30 of next year) Between 1955 to 1965, By place of Origin	56
3.3 Teachers from India who were Issued Interim Teaching Certificates Between 1955 and 1965. Kind of Certificate by Year in which Issued . .	58

CHAPTER IV

4.1 Geographical Location of Teachers from India in Alberta in June 1965. Region of the Province and Sex of Respondent	64
4.2 Distribution by Sex of Teachers from India in Different Regions of Alberta in June, 1965-- Regions with Approximate Populations as of 1961.	72
4.3 Kinds of Communities in Alberta Where Teachers From India were Teaching in June 1965 by Sex of Respondent	74
4.4 Size of Alberta Communities Where Indian Teachers Were Teaching in June 1965--Population of Community, by Sex of Respondent	76

CHAPTER	IV	PAGE
4.5	Distance of Communities from Edmonton or Calgary Where Indian Teachers Were Teaching in June 1965 by Sex of Respondent	79
CHAPTER	V	
5.1	Comparison of Teachers from India and The Alberta Teaching Force by Sex and By Age of Teacher	87
5.2	Comparison of Teachers from India and The The Alberta Teaching Force by Marital Status and by Sex of the Teacher	89
5.3	Teachers from India by Province of Origin in India and by Sex	91
5.4	Place of Origin of Respondents in India by Rural or Urban Background by Sex of Respondent	94
5.5	Social Class Origin of Respondents Occupational Prestige Position of Father by Sex of Respondent	97
5.6	Intergenerational Social Mobility-- Kind of Mobility by Sex of Respondents	101
5.7	Education of Parents of Teachers from India-School Grade Completed by Sex of Respondent	104
5.8	Education of Parents of Teachers from India - Further Training of Parents by Sex of Respondent	105

CHAPTER	V	PAGE
5. 9	Previous Intercultural Experience of Respondents. Length of Stay in Foreign Countries by Sex of Respondent	107
5.10	Religious Affiliation of Indian Teachers by Sex of Respondents	108
CHAPTER	VI	
6. 1	Comparison of Years of Teacher Education of Respondents and The Alberta Teaching Force by Sex of Teacher	114a
6. 2	Comparison of Highest Teaching Certificates Held by Respondents and The Alberta Teaching Force by Sex of Teacher	115
6. 3	Comparison of Teaching Experience of Respondents and The Alberta Teaching Force by Sex of Respondents	119
6. 4	Comparison of Gross Annual Salary Received by Respondents and The Alberta Teaching Force by Sex of Teacher	122
6. 5	Comparison of Teaching Position Held by Respondents and The Alberta Teaching Force by Sex of Teacher	124
6. 6	Comparison of Grade-Level of Teaching of Respondents and The Alberta Teaching Force by Sex of Teacher	126
6. 7	Comparison of School Level of Teaching of Respondents and The Alberta Teaching Force by Sex of Teacher	129

CHAPTER VI

PAGE

6. 8 Comparison of Schools by Size in Which the Respondents and The Alberta Teaching Force were Teaching--By Number of Full-Time Teachers and Sex of Teacher	131
6. 9 Distribution of Major Subjects Taught by Indian Teachers Teaching in Junior and Senior High Schools, by Sex of Respondent (June, 1965)	133
6.10 Teaching Experience of Teachers from India Just Prior To Coming to Canada - Years of Teaching Experience and Sex	135
6.11 Teaching Positions Held by Teachers from India Just Prior to Coming to Canada by Sex of Respondent	136
6.12 Level of School/Institution at which Taught in India or Elsewhere Just Prior to Coming to Canada by Sex of Respondent	138
6.13 Foreign Countries Where Taught Before Coming to Canada by Sex of Respondent	139
6.14 Total Length of Stay of Indian Teachers in Foreign Countries as Teachers by Sex of Respondent	140

CHAPTER VI	PAGE
6.15 Occupation of Respondents Before Joining Teaching Profession -- Socio-Economic Scale Position of Occupation by Sex of Respondent	141
CHAPTER VII	
7. 1 Certification Courses Taken by Indian Teachers Between 1958-1964	155
7. 2 Indian Teachers' Rating of Usefulness of Certification Courses They Have Taken by Sex of Teacher	156
7. 3 Teacher Preference With Respect to Required University Courses for Certification by Sex of Teacher	157
7. 4 Kinds of Courses Recommended by Indian Teachers for Certification Purposes by Sex of Respondent	158
7. 5 Most Suitable Time for Taking Certification Courses by Sex of Respondent	160
7. 6 Reasons and Ranking of Reasons Given By Indian Teachers for Coming to Alberta by Sex of Respondent	163
7. 7 Sources of Information That Proved Helpful in Obtaining Teaching Positions in Alberta by Sex of Respondent	164

CHAPTER VIII	PAGE
8. 1 Percentage Distribution and Ranking of Indian Teachers' Motivation for Immigration to Canada	177
8. 2 Percentage Distribution and Ranking of Indian Teachers' Motivation for Immigration to Canada by Sex of Respondents . .	182
8. 3 Percentage Distribution and Ranking of Indian Teachers' Motivations for Immigration to Canada by Age of Respondent . .	184
8. 4 Percentage Distribution and Ranking of Indian Teachers' Motivation for Immigration to Canada by Urban Rural Origin of Respondent .	186
8. 5 Percentage Distribution and Ranking of Indian Teachers' Motivation for Immigration to Canada by Social Class of Respondent	187
8. 6 Percentage Distribution and Ranking of Indian Teachers' Motivation for Immigration to Canada by Social Mobility of Respondent . .	189
8. 7 Percentage Distribution and Ranking of Indian Teachers' Motivation for Immigration to Canada by Religious Background of Respondent	191
CHAPTER IX	
9. 1 Percentage Distribution and Ranking of Problems Percieved in Alberta Situation by Indian Teachers	199

CHAPTER IX	PAGE
9. 2 Percentage Distribution and Ranking of Problems Perceived in Alberta Situation by Indian Teachers by Sex of Respondent	203
9. 3 Percentage Distribution and Ranking of Problems Perceived in Alberta Situation by Indian Teachers by Age of Respondent	205
9. 4 Percentage Distribution and Ranking of Problems Perceived in Alberta Situation by Indian Teachers by Previous Inter-cultural Experience of Respondent	207
9. 5 Percentage Distribution and Ranking of Problems Perceived in Alberta Situation by Indian Teachers by Religious Background of Respondent	209
9. 6 Percentage Distribution and Ranking of Problems Perceived in Alberta Situation by Indian Teachers by Distance of Community from Edmonton/Calgary Where Respondent Taught	211
9. 7 Percentage Distribution and Ranking of Problems Perceived in Alberta Situation by Indian Teachers by Kind of Community in Which Respondent Taught	213
9. 8 Percentage Distribution and Ranking of Problems Perceived in Alberta Situation by Indian Teachers by Grade-level of Teaching of Respondent	215

CHAPTER IX	PAGE
9. 9 Percentage Distribution and Ranking of Problems Perceived in Alberta Situation by Indian Teachers by Size of School in Which Taught	217
9.10 Summary of Relationships Found Between the Problems Perceived by Respondents and Eight Variables used in Analysis	219
9.11 "Life-Long" Commitment of Indian Teachers to Teaching Profession by Sex of Respondent . .	220
9.12 "Life-Long" Commitment of Indian Teachers to Teaching Profession by Age of Respondent . .	221
9.13 Indian Teachers' Plans for Staying in the Alberta Teaching Force by Sex of Respondent . .	222
9.14 Indian Teachers' Plans for Staying in the Alberta Teaching Force by Age of Respondent . .	222
9.15 Indian Teachers' Perception of Equality of Opportunity for Professional Advancement in Alberta by Sex of Respondent	224
9.16 Indian Teachers' Perception of Equality of Opportunity for Professional Advancement in Alberta by Age of Respondent	224
9.17 Plans of Indian Teachers for Further Education by Sex of Respondent	225
9.18 Plans of Indian Teachers for Further Education by Age of Respondent	226

LIST OF MAPS

MAP	PAGE
1 Map of Alberta showing School Divisions, Counties and Districts, and the Four Zones of the Province When Divided Along the 55th, 53.5th and 51st Parallels	65
2 Map of Alberta Showing Distribution of Population (1961) across the Province and in each of the Four Zones of the Province when Divided along the 55th, 53.5th and 51st Parallels	69
3 Map of India Showing the Provincial Origins of Indian Teachers Teaching in Alberta in 1964-65 (Actual Number coming from each Province and Percentage it Formed of the Group is Indicated)	93

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

"Brain-Drains" and "Brain-Gains" are the talk of the day in the present era of rapid industrialization and technological innovation. Nations rich or poor, developed or developing, are clamouring for the scarce resource--the skilled and professional manpower--central to this drama of change, development and material prosperity. The post-World War II period has been especially marked by the realization of the pivotal role of the skilled manpower in the economies of the poor as well as the rich nations. Increased measures have been taken by many countries not only to develop and train their indigenous human resources but also to search for and attract trained people from outside. This world-wide search for the professional and the skilled, ever widening and becoming more competitive, has resulted in a large-scale migration of trained people across national frontiers.

A survey of the literature on migration suggests that although a large number of empirical studies have been done on various aspects of economic and social integration of immigrants in general, virtually none have been devoted to the study of professional migrants specifically. There are references in this literature to the relative ease with which the immigrants with education and capable of speaking the language of the host society, can achieve economic and social

integration. There is, however, no systematic knowledge available on various questions of theoretical as well as practical importance which can be asked about the professional migrants. A few discussion papers and empirical investigations on migrant professionals have appeared in recent years.¹ All of these deal either with causes or motivations to migration or the economic consequences for the despatching or receiving countries.

Besterman explains the phenomenon of migration of skilled people essentially in economic terms. He remarks especially in connection with the flow of professionals from poorer to richer nations, that--

There is often, unfortunately, a discrepancy between the marginal social product of a skilled worker's labour and the rewards it can command. In the developing countries the marginal social product is great but the rewards are often less; in the advanced countries the marginal social product is relatively smaller but the rewards are great. The evidence shows that the migration flow of professional, technical and skilled workers is, not unnaturally, towards those countries where the individual rewards are greatest rather than to those countries where needs are most acute.²

¹G. Beijér, "Selective Migration For And 'Brain Drain' From Latin America", International Migration, Vol. IV, 1966, pp. 28-36; W. M. Besterman, "Immigrations As a Means of Obtaining Needed Skills and Stimulating Economic and Social Advancement", International Migration, Vol. III, 1965, pp. 204-208; D. J. Lawless, "The Emigration of British Graduates to Canada", Occupational Psychology, Vol. 39, 1965, pp. 115-121, and "Motivation to Migration: Studies of Applicants in London, Cologne and Dublin" (Unpublished M. A. Thesis, University of London, 1964).

²Besterman, op. cit., p. 207.

Lawless, who studied the motivations of British graduates migrating to Canada concludes in part--

The most frequently stated reasons for wishing to emigrate among the graduates studied was for physical and personal 'betterment'. Their motivation, generally, tended to be more of a 'pull' than a 'push' type.³

Thus the focus of these papers or studies has been purely on the causes of or motivations to migration. The present study has been prompted, in part, by the paucity of research on professional migrants, which has gone beyond the question of motivations to migration alone and partly by the relevance of the problem which is the focus of the present study to practice especially in Alberta and, perhaps, elsewhere as well.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this thesis is to make a sociological survey of a group of foreign teachers teaching in the Province of Alberta. More specifically, the survey includes immigrant teachers from India who were teaching in Alberta during the 1964-65 academic year.⁴ The major focus of the study is the

³Lawless, op. cit., p. 121.

⁴The word "Indian" will be used in this study to refer to teachers or other persons from India only. Readers are alerted not to confuse the meaning of the word "Indian" as used in this study with the meaning that Columbus gave to it at the time of his historic discovery of the New World. Columbus had, at least, some justification for his "mistaken" use of the word. To repeat his "mistake" today may cause more confusion than do any good. The term "East Indian" used in Canada, for people from India is not very accurate. In other parts of the world it could easily be taken to refer to people coming from Indonesia known until recently as Dutch East Indies. It is, perhaps, for such reasons that even in the United States different writers have taken care to use "Indian" to refer only to people from India.

investigation of the motivations to migration of the immigrant teachers, problems perceived by them essentially in the professional and institutional spheres of work, and the main features of their institutional absorption and structural location in the teaching profession in Alberta.

It is assumed that the areas of focal interest in the present survey which have been delineated above are related as well to the background and professional characteristics of immigrant teachers as to their retention in the profession in Alberta and their future plans. Therefore, a detailed description and sociological analysis of the background and professional characteristics of the migrants forms an integral part of the investigation. Finally, an attempt has been made to place the present study in and relate it to the broader perspective provided by the increased migration of professionals since the last World War across national and cultural frontiers.

Nature of the Study

The present study is essentially descriptive and formulative in nature. It does not set out to test any initial causal hypotheses designed to test any specific sociological theory. Throughout the thesis, however, various sociological concepts are used and a general sociological perspective is assumed to analyze or interpret the data. Effort is also made to relate the findings of the study to the already existing sociological knowledge wherever possible. Thus, although, the present study will not test any causal hypotheses, it is hoped, that it will be helpful in pointing out tentatively the rele-

vance of certain variables to the general phenomenon of professional migration. It will also be possible to suggest some specific hypotheses on the basis of the conclusions of the study.

A Note on Methodology

The population forming the subject of this study consisted of immigrant teachers from India, teaching in the Province of Alberta during the 1964-65 academic year. It includes "all" teachers from India who migrated to Alberta between 1958 and 1965 and were teaching at the time of the survey. The first most important step in the launching of the present investigation was the construction of the universe to be studied. Since neither the Alberta Department of Education nor the Alberta Teachers' Association keep separate, and in a consolidated form, any information regarding the immigrant teachers from any country, the investigator had to resort to a combination of techniques in collecting information on the number, names and addresses of the Indian teachers employed in Alberta Public School System. Annual Reports from school principals for two successive years, 1963 and 1964, available in the office of the Registrar of the Department of Education in Edmonton, were examined and the names of the Indian teachers were identified by the investigator himself. The "identification of names" technique was used also in examining the records on Alberta teaching force in the Alberta Teachers' Association office in Edmonton. The most important source of information, however, in this regard were the Indian teachers themselves, those known

to the investigator. By using all the three techniques in combination, it was possible to prepare an almost complete list of Indian teachers. The total number of Indian teachers on the mailing list thus prepared was eighty-two.

Because of the small size of the population sampling was deemed unnecessary. To collect the data for the study, a questionnaire (see Appendix A) was mailed to eighty teachers at the end of the third week of June, 1965.⁵ Altogether, seventy-six replies were received, two of them too late to be included in the analysis of the data. Another three of the returned questionnaires could not be used because the advantage gained would have been disproportionate to the difficulties created by their inclusion. Of the four from whom replies were not received, two were straight refusals and the other two were absent from Canada when the questionnaires were mailed and could not be reached. Thus, altogether, seventy-one completed questionnaires were found usable.

As is clear from the preceding paragraph, everybody in the population under study was asked to provide data for the investigation. Ninety-five per cent actually responded to the questionnaire but 89 per cent were finally included in the study as respondents. For all practical purposes, this study is using a total sample, the whole population. The fact that sampling was not resorted to and a total sample is being used, automatically eliminates the use of tests of significance.

⁵The investigator and his wife were excluded from the mailing list for obvious reasons.

Questionnaire data were coded and punched into I.B.M. cards. The verification was done by oral checking of the coding sheets against the typewritten numbers along the top edge of the punched cards. All frequency distributions for columns and cross-tabulations of the data for different variables were done by running the I.B.M. cards through the sorting machine. All percentages and measures of central tendency, were computed by the investigator mostly with the help of calculating machines. For the final analysis of the data, the original frequency distributions of the columns were later collapsed to get suitable and meaningful categories.

Another important point regarding the collection and processing of data which must be mentioned is the fact that respondents were deliberately not asked in the questionnaire to give any information on their religious affiliation. Information on religion, used in the analysis of data, was gathered once again by "identification of names" technique.⁶ Since the information on religion was not punched into the I.B.M. cards, the identification number of the respondent as punched into the I.B.M. card, his name and his religious affiliation had to be compared to separate the cards into religious groups for cross-tabulation. This method, however tedious, was the only one available in the absence of information on religion when cards were punched.

⁶Names of Hindus, Sikhs, Muslims and Christians of Indian origin, with a few exceptions, can be easily identified or related to their religious affiliation.

Overview of the Thesis

The report of this study will consist of ten chapters. This chapter began with an introduction to the problem under investigation. It included the statement of the problem, nature of the study, and a note on methodology.

Chapter II will undertake a review of general literature on migration. Then, it will examine some studies dealing with the causes of migrations, processes of adjustment, assimilation or integration of migrants in the countries and cultures of their destination.

Chapter III will review briefly the history of Indian migration overseas with particular reference to the Western World and North America. It will also examine the phenomenon of migration of professional workers to Canada since 1946 in order to place the migration of Indian teachers and other professional workers to Canada in the broader world-wide perspective of migration of professionals.

Chapter IV deals with the ecology of the Indian teachers in Alberta. The ecological information about the respondents is essential to the understanding of the mode of their absorption into the educational system of Alberta. This process of institutional absorption will be examined with a view to assessing the competitive position of the respondents within the system in obtaining "more desirable" positions.

Chapter V will present the respondents' background characteristics, some of which will be used later in analyzing the data on respondents' perception of motivations in Chapter

VIII and problems and future plans in Chapter IX. To obtain an understanding of the group under study in relation to the Alberta teachers in general, the characteristics of the Indian teachers and Alberta teaching force will be compared.

Chapter VI will examine the professional characteristics in two sections. Section I will present the professional characteristics of Indian teachers in Alberta as of June 1965, and compare them with those of the Alberta teaching force. Section II will deal with professional characteristics just prior to leaving for Canada.

Chapter VII will deal with the certification requirements which Indian teachers have to meet to get teaching authority. Some problems subsequent to actual certification will also be discussed.

Chapter VIII will be devoted to the analysis of data pertaining to respondents' perception of motivations for immigration to Canada.

Chapter IX will deal with analysis of data on respondents' perception of problems faced in the Alberta work setting. The analysis of problems will be followed by the examination of the future plans of respondents, their retention in Alberta teaching force, and reasons for returning to India.

Chapter X, the final chapter, will summarize the findings and report the conclusions that the study dictates. Some implications for future policy and suggestions for further research will also be included. The thesis will be concluded by stating

several hypotheses based on insights developed during the investigation and which may serve as a basis for future studies.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to present an introduction to the general literature on international migration in order to provide an historical perspective for the present study.

The study of immigration has a fairly long history. It also has had a long association with sociology. In his review of the achievements and trends in American Sociology, E. A. Shils says:

The study of the life of immigrants was indeed one of the original justifications for the existence of American sociology; it was in part because no other social scientists dealt with the problem created by immigration that sociologists were able to legitimate their emergence as a separate academic department.¹

During the last half century, hundreds of studies dealing with immigrants and their adjustment have been undertaken, not only in the United States, but also in a number of other countries of immigration, including Canada, Great Britain, Australia, Brazil, Israel, France, Belgium and many others.² In this chapter, however, only a brief review

¹E. A. Shils, The Present State of American Sociology, (Glencoe: The Free Press, 1948), p. 25.

²Zubryzcki, "Sociological Methods for the study of Immigrant Adjustment", C. A. Price (ed.), The Study of Immigrants in Australia, Proceedings of Conference on Immigration Research. The Australian National University, Canberra, 1960, p. 13.

of the relevant literature is undertaken.

International Migration - An Introduction

Most studies of international migration have been concerned with the movement from or to one particular country. Virtually all the other, somewhat broader works have focussed on migrations during a single historical era. Although the main emphasis in this literature has been on description some attempts to treat migration analytically have also been made. In the literature are several examples of classification, both of immigration, and of immigrants.³ These taxonomies are helpful in the development of a general theory of migration. This theory, in turn, can be useful in enabling social scientists and others to view immigration to different parts of the world analytically and comparatively.

In a recent paper, Petersen⁴ has tried to refine and elaborate the first crude, but best known, typology of

³For example see, H. P. Fairchild, Immigration: A World Movement and Its American Significance, (Rev. Ed.; New York: Macmillan, 1925), pp. 13 ff. Here Fairchild suggests a four-fold classification of migration: (1) invasion, (2) conquest, (3) colonization, (4) immigration. Another similar classification of migratory movements is presented in, Kingsley Davis, Human Society, (Twentieth Printing; New York: Macmillan, 1965), "Types of Migration", pp. 588-591. His typology includes five classes: (1) conquest, (2) displacement, (3) forced-labor, (4) free individual migration, and (5) controlled migration.

⁴William Petersen, "A General Typology of Migration", in W. Petersen, The Politics of Population (London: Victor Gollancz Ltd., 1964), pp. 271-290.

migratory movements constructed by H. P. Fairchild in 1925. In developing his typology of internal and external migratory movements, Petersen rejects Fairchild's oversimplified "push-pull" polarity in environmental factors as criteria for classification. He rejects this push-pull polarity for two reasons. First, because this polarity implies a universal sedentary tendency in human behaviour--an assumption which has little empirical basis in either history or psychology--which cannot explain differential behaviour. Second, because this assumption fails to distinguish between emigrants' motives and the social causes of emigration, any analysis of migration based on it lacks logical clarity. Furthermore, he challenges the usual notion that individuals always migrate in order to change their way of life. It is emphasized in the study that motives (described as "innovative" and "conservative") of individual migrants provide a criterion for significant distinction. Petersen's typology of human migrations, which suggests five broad classes of migration, is:

- (a) primitive migration, resulting from ecological push (e.g., Old Testament nomads, post-famine Irish);
- (b) and (c), forced, and impelled migration (e.g., slave trade, German Jews, 1933-42; exodus of people from India and Pakistan in 1947, Hungarian refugees; indentured labor from Asia;
- (d) free migration, (e.g., overseas movements from

Europe during the 19th century, Pietist sects).

(e) mass migration, (e.g., migration from Sweden to North America beginning in 1861-70).

Immigration, "as a voluntary movement of people between well-developed countries"⁵ is an essentially modern concept which emerged in the wake of large-scale international population movements beginning after 1800. The discovery and opening up of the "New World" to the European man and the population explosion in Europe that began in the mid-eighteenth century are the two most important phenomena in history which stimulated this type of migration to the New World and especially to North America. New settlements overseas, with spacious lands and rich natural resources, needed more people, and the continent of Europe, much of it densely populated, was only too ready to export its surplus population. Pressures resulting from population growth, and innovations in agriculture and industry which were creating surplus population, (which first made themselves felt in England, and subsequently appeared in northern and later in eastern and then southern Europe), produced the efflux of peasantry, termed by Handlin as Europe's uprooted.⁶

⁵W. D. Borrie, The Cultural Integration of Immigrants, (Paris: UNESCO Publication, 1959), p. 34. Borrie attributes the origin of this definition of immigration to H. P. Fairchild, Immigration, New York, 1925, p. 30.

⁶Oscar Handlin, The Uprooted, (New York: Grosset and Dunlop, 1951).

During the nineteenth century, over 50,000,000 Europeans migrated overseas. About 38,000,000 of these migrants went to the United States⁷ and 7,000,000 entered Canada by 1930.⁸

The outpouring of population from Europe across the Atlantic was a voluntary movement essentially uninhibited by restrictive practices on the part of the emigration or immigration countries. The first step in the undermining of this international mobility came with the First World War. The number of aliens arriving in the United States fell from 1,198,000 in 1913 to 111,000 in 1918.⁹ Since the end of World War I, however, immigration to many of the countries has been regulated by restrictive legislation which stemmed from new immigration policies implying the concepts of 'assimilability' of migrants and 'economic absorptive capacity' of the receiving country. The selective immigration policies, the economic depression of the thirties and World War II--all these and other economic and political factors have strongly

⁷H. A. Citreon, European Emigration Overseas Past and Future (The Hague; Martinus Nijhoff, 1951), pp. 4-5. Emigration on a somewhat similar scale was taking place from other parts of the world also. From India alone, between 1834-1937, slightly more than 30,000,000 persons emigrated to other parts of the world, mostly within the British Empire. Net emigration, however, amounted to only 6,000,000. Kingsley Davis, The Population of India and Pakistan, (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1951), p. 99.

⁸W. D. Borrie, op. cit., p. 35.

⁹Brinley Thomas, International Migration and Economic Development (Paris: UNESCO Publication, 1961), p. 15.

influenced the international migration movements during the last forty years. Although, initially, the restrictions on immigration by different countries were not imposed on economic grounds, since World War II the needs of the national economies have tended to become the most important factor in determining the size and nature of this inflow. Emigration from Asia and Africa in the post-World War II period has been very small. From Europe it has been substantial, yet comparatively slight compared to the great migration which built up the populations of the New World in the nineteenth century, or even in the early decades of the twentieth century.

The United States received massive numbers of immigrants almost every year starting with the second half of the last century. In a little over a century, 38,000,000 people from all over Europe, with a great variety of cultural and linguistic backgrounds, found themselves transplanted on the American soil. The majority of them settled in big industrial cities of the North American continent where their labor was in great demand in the new industries that were springing up rapidly. It was not too long before all the major American cities found developing in their midst the "notorious" ethnic ghettos, the "Little Italys" and the "Greek Towns", etc. The immigrants as a social phenomenon in North America were all too evident to be ignored by social scientists, and as Shils has pointed out, the problems of immigration and assimilation became the major concern of American sociology during the early years of

this century.¹⁰

Review of Some Studies

The first major empirical study of immigration to the United States was The Polish Peasant in Europe and America by W. I. Thomas and Florian Znaniecki.¹¹ In this classic study, probably the most comprehensive and adventurous made at least until 1952¹², the authors describe the demoralizing effects of the transfer from the stable, closely knit agricultural village in Poland to the rapidly changing, complex American industrial city.¹³

¹⁰It has been pointed out by one writer that many of the original generation of American sociologists started work in immigration and assimilation. Park, who later became one of the most brilliant sociologists ever to be interested in immigration, started his career as a journalist and wrote about the problems of immigrants; Bogardus began his career teaching immigrants English in Chicago; Fairchild began his by writing a book on Greek immigration to America; Znaniecki reached fame by working with W. I. Thomas on their monumental study of the Polish peasant....See, C. A. Price, op. cit., p. 6.

¹¹The first edition of this work was published in five volumes between 1918 and 1920 by R. O. Badger, Boston.

¹²D. S. Thomas, while summarizing research in this area remarks that "much of the recent empirical research on immigration differentials seems trivial and inept". D. S. Thomas, "The Committee on Migration Differentials and Its Relations to the Council's Activities", referred to by D. V. Glass, in the Preface to the E. W. Hofstee, Some Remarks on Selective Migration (The Hague: R.E.M.P. Bulletin VII, 1952), p. VI.

¹³Thomas and Znaniecki illustrate how the immigrants' disorganization is increased by the prejudice shown against them. Some of the immigrants and their children were able to make the adjustment without major difficulties, but many others exhibited several forms of demoralization. They also show at length the increase, among adults, of economic dependency, of divorce and desertion, and of murder. They describe the increase of vagabondage and delinquency in boys and sexual immorality among girls. See W. I. Thomas and F. Znaniecki, The Polish Peasant in Europe and America, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1927, Vol. 2, pp. 1647-1827.

The major contributions of the authors of this monumental work are: (a) demonstration of the need for studying the subjective factor in social life, i.e., the immigrant's behaviour patterns together with social values and attitudes in the country of origin and country of immigration; (b) concept of the social disorganization of social attitudes due to a breakdown of group attitudes, and (c) in the field of methodology, i.e., the life history technique-- use of documentary materials that reveal the sources and nature of social attitudes.¹⁴

While Thomas and Znaniecki used the perspective of social psychology in the matter of theoretical conceptualization, Robert Park's contribution lay in the field of sociology. Park's conceptual system began with the social process of interaction. He thought that

social control and the mutual subordination of individual members to the community have their origin in conflict, assume definite organized forms in the process of accommodation and are consolidated and fixed in assimilation.¹⁵[Emphasis added].

Park also emphasized the importance of the distinction between primary group membership and secondary group membership in immigrant adjustment.

In the area of methodology also, Park and his associates

¹⁴J. Zubrzycki, op. cit., pp. 14-15. Zubrzycki says that "It is the lasting contribution of Thomas and Znaniecki that they have oriented studies of immigrants away from purely descriptive accounts of migration to sociologically meaningful categories".

¹⁵R. E. Park and E. W. Burgess, Introduction to the Science of Sociology, Chicago 1921, p. 785.

at the University of Chicago, known as the "ecological school", made a significant contribution. The emphasis of this school on the significance of the ecological factor in the process of interaction resulted in many studies of urban areas which showed how the distribution of city populations was related to such variables as ethnic origin and occupation and pointed out the phenomenon of "ecological succession".¹⁶

With the subsiding of the tide of large-scale immigration into the United States following World War I, the interest of the sociologists gradually shifted from immigrants themselves to their children. Since Park's¹⁷ development of the concept of "Marginal man" in 1928, a considerable volume of literature has developed around the concepts of marginality, alienation, and their sources and influences on the personality of the individual.

Although considerable work is being done at present by sociologists on problems of immigration in countries like Canada, Australia, Israel and in Europe and South America,

¹⁶See, for example, R. E. Park and H. A. Millar, Old World Traits Transplanted, (New York: Harper Brothers, 1921). Some other titles in the intensely interesting sociological series of the University of Chicago are: The Ghetto, The Immigrant Press and Its Control, The Gang, and The Gold Coast and the Slum.

¹⁷R. E. Park, "Human Migration and the Marginal Man", American Journal of Sociology, XXXIII (May 1928), 881-93. Also see, E. V. Stonequist, The Marginal Man: A Study in Personality and Culture Conflict (New York: Charles Scribner and Sons, 1937). The topic of marginality is still drawing considerable interest from sociologists, social psychologists and others.

the interest in this field in the United States has sharply declined.¹⁸ In that country, most of the work on immigration is being done by ethnic historians like Hansen¹⁹, Jones²⁰, and Handlin²¹, their main interest being in tracing the causes and results of this historic phenomenon. In contrast to the United States, the Canadian interest in the study of immigrants and their problems is quite strong. Canada is still a country which welcomes large-scale immigration and is admitting immigrants from other parts of the world in numbers quite large relative to its population. A number of studies²² on immigrants have appeared in recent years, dealing with issues like social mobility of immigrants of different ethnic backgrounds, influence of ecological variables on adjustment, or economic adjustment of different immigrant groups.

¹⁸C. A. Price, loc. cit., p. 6.

¹⁹M. L. Hansen, The Atlantic Migration, 1607-1860 (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1940 and 1961).

²⁰M. A. Jones, American Immigration (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960).

²¹Oscar Handlin, op. cit.

²²See, for example, Anthony Richmond, "Social Mobility of Immigrants in Canada", Population Studies, Vol. XVIII 1964-65, pp. 53-69; Richard J. Ossenberrg, "The Social Integration of Post-War Immigrants in Montreal and Toronto", The Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology, Vol. 1 #4 (Nov. 1964), pp. 202-214; J. Kosa, Land of Choice: The Hungarians in Canada (Toronto, 1957); La Situation des Immigrants à Montréal, Le Groupe de Recherches Sociales, Inc. Conseil les Oeures de Montreal, Montreal, 1959; and Alan T. Powell, "Differentials in the Integration Process of Dutch and Italian Immigrants in Edmonton", unpublished Master's thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1964.

Most of the studies of immigrant groups that have been undertaken in different parts of the world have been essentially in the Thomas-Znaniecki-Park tradition. Few advances in methodology or in conceptual framework have been made. Some refinements, however, have been introduced. The concept of assimilation for example has been elaborated to include various facets, such as social, economic, and political, etc. More recently, the concept of "integration" has been consciously substituted for assimilation by the majority of writers.²³ The emphasis on "cultural solidarity" implied in Park's definition of assimilation is being replaced by "cultural pluralism".²⁴ In reviewing trends in immigration studies done during the last twenty years, Zubrzycki²⁵ has pointed out, however, that some studies have indicated significant innovation in their approach to the study of the problems in this field. The two new approaches developed have been called the demographic and the frame-of-reference approach. The demographic approach, in the study of immigrant adjustment, is concerned with "the examination of population as a social

²³Brinley Thomas, op. cit., p. 52.

²⁴'Cultural pluralism' is the cornerstone of the official policy of the Department of Citizenship and Immigration in Canada. "Integration... is used in Canada to express a theory which combines unity and diversity. The unity is sought in common principles of political philosophy and in participation in common citizenship. The diversity is maintained by reciprocal appreciation of diverse cultural contributions". W. D. Borrie, op. cit., p. 95.

²⁵J. Zubrzycki, op. cit., p. 17.

order rather than as aggregate"²⁶. The receiving group in this model is treated as a social system and interaction between the old and the new members of a group is examined with respect to the achievement of group goals as well as their significance to the other facets of the social system.²⁷ The frame-of-reference approach fully developed by Taft²⁸ and used by Eisenstadt²⁹ in his study of the absorption of Jewish immigrants in Israel, emphasizes the study of one important aspect of immigrant behaviour--the sphere of norms of behaviour and the values underlying these norms. The extent to which the terms of reference of the majority are shared by the minority, indicates the degree of social integration of the minority group in the society as a whole.

During the last fifteen years the international migration of professional and skilled persons has emerged as a significant phenomenon within the larger migratory move-

²⁶Loc. cit.

²⁷William Petersen's study, Planned Migration: The Social Determinants of Dutch-Canadian Movement (Berkeley: Univ. of California, 1955), has been cited as an example of this approach and in particular, his analysis of the pattern of settlement of the Orthodox Calvinist group.

²⁸For a detailed discussion of this approach see, R. A. Taft, "The Shared Frame of Reference Concept Applied to the Assimilation of Immigrants", Human Relations, vol. VI, 1957, pp. 45-55; "A Psychological Model for the Study of Social Assimilation", ibid., Vol. X, 1957, pp. 141-156.

²⁹S. N. Eisenstadt, "Analysis of Patterns of Immigration and Absorption of Immigrants", Population Studies (London), vol. VII #2, Nov., 1953, pp. 167-188.

ment of people across national borders. Relatively less developed and poorer countries--countries that need the professional and highly trained people most--are losing inevitably in this worldwide competition for acquiring these valuable human resources. Speaking about the migration of qualified manpower, Thomas states that "much of the international mobility of the skill in the Free World today is perverse, and accentuates the maldistribution of world income".³⁰ Widespread concern about the so-called "Brain-Drain" in countries losing in this competition has brought this phenomenon into sharp focus. In some recent studies, an attempt has been made to study the causes and other dimensions of this outflow.³¹ Lawless, in particular, in what is at best an exploratory study, has tried to isolate the relevant variables which might be considered to influence the emigration of mobile graduates from Britain.³²

³⁰Brinley Thomas, "Trends in the International Migration of Skilled Manpower", Migration (Geneva, 1961), Vol. I, #3, p. 19, quoted in International Migration, Vol. IV, #1, 1966, p. 29.

³¹See, for example, D. J. Lawless, "The Emigration of British Graduates to Canada", Occupational Psychology, Vol. 39, #2, (April, 1965), pp. 115-122; E. Oteiza, "Emigration of Engineers from Argentina: A Case of Latin American 'Brain-Drain'", International Labor Review, Vol. 92, #6 (Dec., 1965), pp. 445-461; G. Beijér, "Selective Migration for and 'Brain-Drain' from Latin America", in International Migration, Vol. IV, #1, 1966, pp. 28-36.

³²Lawless, op. cit. The direction, trends and volume of this outflow will be discussed in detail in the next chapter in this study.

This study marks a welcome beginning in an area which has every justification for sociological investigation distinctly separate from, although not indeptendent of, the general research already done on immigration. The problems of adjustment of the professional migrants, some similarities in this respect not-withstanding, are likely to be essentially different from those of the migrants in general. Because of the nature of the educational background, professional training, at least working knowledge of one foreign language and most probably the knowledge of the language of the country of immigration, the significant problems of adjustment of the professional migrants are likely to have their locus outside the traditional problem areas explored and discovered by the sociologists. Their problems and major adjustments may lie in the area of their professional work, i.e., in their relationships with their professional organizations, employing institutions or with their clients. Needless to say, however, some of the variables such as ethnicity, racial origin or skin colour may be of as much importance in their case as in that of migrants generally.

The review of literature undertaken in this chapter will not be complete without a brief discussion of the relatively large amount of literature that has been recently produced in the investigation of a somewhat different, but important migration. During the last decade, a number of investigators have described the adjustment of

foreign students³³ to their host culture as a process of acculturation.³⁴ Most have observed a process of psychological adaptation, which over time approximates a "U" curve. The process of adaptation is marked by three major phases: (a) spectator phase, characterized by minimum involvement; (b) involvement phase, characterized by decline of morale as a result of "culture shock" and other frustrations and "disillusionments" and (c) coming to terms phase, where morale rises and associations with individuals from the host country

³³Foreign students are not migrants in the sense in which this term has been used in the preceding discussion. They do not migrate to the host culture or country with the explicit purpose of making it their permanent home. Nevertheless, once in an alien culture, they cannot escape the influences resulting from the cross-cultural contact. The essential difference between the 'migrant' and a foreign student, however, must be emphasized. The investigator is of the view that the study of literature on adjustment of the foreign student, though not of direct relevance, has been greatly helpful in providing valuable insights during the course of the present study.

³⁴"Acculturation" has been described as one of the three main interdependent indices of adaptation and assimilation of immigrants within their new country. The other two indices are (a) institutional integration, and (b), personal adjustment and integration of the immigrants. Acculturation--as an index of adaptation--"refers to the extent to which immigrants acquire the various norms, mores and customs of the new country. See, S. N. Eisenstadt, op. cit., 167-168.

increase.³⁵ The findings in these studies can provide valuable insight into the adjustment patterns of the professional migrants, especially during the first few years of the individual's residence in the new area. Except for Beals and Humphrey and Sewell and Davidson, all the investigators have relegated the academic environment, as a variable in adjustment, to a secondary and minor importance. Selby and Woods found that the values and pressures that are the products of the particular University setting and not of the outside world, influence the students' perception of and interaction with other aspects of University and American life.³⁶

Selby and Woods have used the approach pursued in several other recent studies, which have looked at adjustment to an institutional structure from the individual's

³⁵All the studies listed below more or less suggest the "U" curve, notwithstanding some slight variation in their findings regarding the true-dimension involved in this three-stage adaptation process. G. V. Coelho, Changing Images of America: A Study of Indian Students' Perceptions, (Glencoe, The Free Press, 1958); R. T. Morris, The Two-Way Mirror: National Status in Foreign Students' Adjustment, (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1960); R. L. Beals and N. D. Humphrey, No Frontiers to Learning: The Mexican Students in the United States, (Minneapolis: Univ. of Minnesota Press 1957); W. H. Sewell and O. M. Davidson, Scandinavian Students on an American Campus, (Minneapolis: Univ. of Minnesota Press, 1954); and Claire Selltiz et al., Attitudes and Social Relations of Foreign Students in the United States (Minneapolis: Univ. of Minnesota Press, 1963). For an excellent but brief review of research in this area, see H. A. Selby and C. M. Wood, "Foreign Students at a High-Pressure University". Sociology of Education, vol. 39, #2, (Spring, 1966), pp. 139-154.

³⁶H. A. Selby and C. M. Woods, "Foreign Students at High-Pressure University", Sociology of Education, vol. 39, No. 2, (Spring, 1966) p. 141.

standpoint.³⁷ The investigators in these studies have attempted to find out how the individual perceives the institutional structure and how and why he relates himself to it the way he does. They have tried to show that the demands and exigencies of the institutional structure and setting have a notable influence upon the entire process of adjustment of new entrants.

In the short space of the preceding pages, an attempt has been made to cover a wide ground in a brief fashion. The discipline of sociology and the research on immigration since the time of Thomas and Znaniecki have grown tremendously. The review of all the research on immigration would be a monumental task in itself. In this review, therefore, only a few more-salient trends have been examined.

³⁷Howard Becker, et al., Boys in White: Student Culture in Medical School (University of Chicago Press, 1961); Donald R. Cressey (ed.), The Prison: Studies in Institutional Organization and Change (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961); E. Goffman, Asylums, (Garden City Doubleday & Co., 1961). These studies are footnoted in, Selby and Woods, ibid., p. 141.

CHAPTER III

INDIAN MIGRATION OVERSEAS

This chapter will delineate briefly the history of emigration from India to the rest of the world, with a special reference to North America. Emphasis will be on the relatively recent migration of Indians to other parts of the world. The migration of professional people to Canada during the post-World War II years will also be discussed. The chapter will be divided into two sections. Section I will deal with the history of migration from India to other parts of the world, with special reference to North America. Section II will discuss the migration of professional workers since 1946, with a special reference to the migration of this sort to Canada.

I

History of Emigration from India with Particular Reference To North America

Migration from place to place in search of a means of subsistence or to escape a stronger adversary is an old phenomenon, men from times immemorial have spread over the greater part of this planet. Within recorded history human migrations have transformed the entire aspect of countries and continents and the racial, ethnic and linguistic composition of their inhabitants.

In the course of the last four hundred years-- a very short period in human history-- the Americas, Australia and Oceania, the northern half of Asia and parts¹ of Africa have become the white man's lands.

The map of Europe, too, is the result of many major migrations including the so-called "great people's migration" which accompanied the fall of Rome.

The general causes operative in the relatively recent and large scale movements of people over considerable distances with the intention of abandoning their former homes for some more or less permanent new domicile are similar to those discernible in primitive migrations.² These causes have, however, undergone changes in order of importance and form in the context of modern migrations. They may be grouped in two broad categories, the physical causes, such as great cataclysms of nature and climatic changes; and the socio-economic causes, such as mass expulsion, defeat in war by invading migrants and the more voluntary motivations, like the desire to exploit new economic opportunities or to conquer new lands.³ The migration to be discussed in this chapter would fall in the

¹"Migration", in Encyclopedia Britannica (Chicago: Encyclopedia Britannica, Inc.), 1963 edition, Vol. 15, p. 463.

²Ronald B. Dixon, "Migrations", in Encyclopedia of Social Sciences (New York: The McMillan Company, June 1933), Vol. 10, p. 420.

³Ibid.

latter category, that is, migration resulting essentially from socio-economic causes.

Emigration from India in General

Migration from India has a long history. From the time of Gautama Buddha (circa 500 B.C.) until the end of the 10th Century A.D., India was the centre of a great cultural and trade expansion towards the South East of Asia, and also along the East Coast of Africa as far as Zanzibar.⁴ In spite of the unfavourable attitude of the Hindu religious institutions of the time toward emigration, the prohibition appears to have been ritually circumvented in the interests of commerce for several centuries.⁵ This migration of Indians, however, came to a virtual, though temporary standstill in the 11th Century "when the rapid and forceful advance of Islam threatened to overwhelm Hindu India".⁶ For its revival, the emigration of Indians had to wait until the advent of the great colonial expansion of the European powers to the four corners of the earth.

During the last four centuries, especially since the beginning of the 19th Century, free emigration from crowded countries has spread some nations far and wide;

⁴Hilda Kuper, Indian People in Natal (The Natal University Press, South Africa, 1960), p. 1.

⁵Ibid.

⁶Ibid.

India is no exception, and has planted her children in the Far East, East Africa, and Europe, as well as in North America, to seek an easier and richer livelihood. More important than this voluntary movement, however, was the system of labor indenture⁷, which operated for nearly a century, between 1830 and 1920, and dispatched millions from Calcutta and Madras to the West Indies and sugar-growing islands in the Indian and Pacific Oceans.⁸ The large populations of Indian origin in places as far apart as Mauritius⁹, Fiji, British Guiana, and Trinidad, like almost all the other inhabitants of the West Indies, "owe their presence there to the cultivation of sugar cane, and

⁷When slavery was abolished in the British Empire in 1833, the "indentured system" served as an alternative to slavery in providing workers for plantations which underwent extensive development in subsequent years. This semi-contractual arrangement provided the workers with certain limited safeguards completely absent under slavery.

⁸Leo Davids, "The East Indian Family Overseas", Social and Economic Studies, Vol. 13, No. 1-4, 1964, p. 386. For an authoritative book on this subject, see Gangulee N., Indians in the Empire Overseas, London: New India Publishing House, 1947.

⁹Mauritius, a British-owned sugar-producing island in the Indian Ocean some 500 miles east of Madagascar, was the first to experiment with unskilled Indian indentured labor. See, Morton Klass, East Indians In Trinidad - A Study of Cultural Persistence, (New York: Columbia University Press, 1961), p. 8. "By the middle of 1837, the number of Indian emigrants to Mauritius exceeded twenty-thousand." Gangulee, op. cit., quoted in ibid., p. 8.

to the events that followed its introduction (around 1650) to the region."¹⁰

In the wake of the indentured labourers there "followed an army of petty contractors, merchants, bankers, shopkeepers and pedlars"¹¹ who knew "how to cater to the special needs and to exploit the peculiar weaknesses of the Indian labourers."¹² Davis distinguishes members of this group as "free" immigrants from the indentured or assisted labourers. There is some evidence that not all of these free immigrants were 'contractors', 'merchants', or 'petty pedlars'. Some professional workers like lawyers, teachers and doctors were also among those migrating of their own free will.¹³

It should be noted, however, that not all the Indian populations overseas were formed by indentured laborers. These settlements, established, as they are, in widely scattered countries of the world, exhibit widely varying characteristics. Mayer has proposed that these populations can be roughly divided into those derived from labourers indentured for agriculture, and those stemming from the

¹⁰ Ibid., p. 4.

¹¹ Appears in quotation marks in, Kingsley Davis, The Population of India and Pakistan (Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1951), p. 105.

¹² Ibid.

¹³ See, K. L. Gillion, Fiji's Indian Migrants - A History to the End of Indenture in 1920 (Melbourne: Oxford University Press, 1962), p. 130.

emigration of traders and men in non-agricultural primary occupations.¹⁴

He has further suggested that such a division would place the Indians in Natal, Trinidad, British Guiana and Fiji on one side and those of East Africa, Canada, Great Britain and the U. S. A. on the other.¹⁵

According to this classification, the permanent Indian communities in the first group of countries consist mainly of farmers, in contrast to the largely mercantile character of settlements in the second group of countries.

The total number of persons living abroad who were born in India or descended from Indians was slightly in excess of four million or almost exactly 1 per cent of India's total population at the time of partition.¹⁶

Kingsley Davis has observed that net emigration from India has been very small as compared to some other European or even Asian countries.¹⁷ This is partly due to the fact that Indians were late in starting to emigrate, and partly because when they did do so they met discrimination on

¹⁴ A. C. Mayer, Indians in Fiji, (London: Oxford University Press, 1963), p. 1.

¹⁵ Ibid.

¹⁶ Kingsley Davis, loc. cit., p. 98.

¹⁷ For example, 85 million people living outside the British Isles derive from those Isles--a figure that is approximately 167 per cent of the present population of Great Britain and Ireland. The persons of European origin now living in other parts of the world approximate more than 200 million, or more than 40 per cent of Europe's total population. Ibid., p. 98.

racial and cultural grounds.¹⁸ Considering the relatively late start and small volume of emigration from India, the wide distribution of Indians across the world is remarkable. The distribution, however, is wider in longitude than in latitude. Though they have gone all the way around the world, they have done so between the latitudes of 20°N and 20°S. For the most part they have settled in tropical areas, but for the subtropical Natal in South Africa and such northern places as Canada, United States and recently, Britain.¹⁹ Furthermore, Mauritius is the only place in which Indian migrants and their descendants "have come to constitute the majority of the population".²⁰

Indian Immigration to Western Countries

The large scale migration of Indians to the countries of the Western world, with the exception of British Colonies in South America and the West Indies, had been virtually non-existent until the end of the Second World War. McKenzie pointed out in 1933 that except for officials, a few merchants and students, oriental immigration to Europe had been negligible.²¹ It was almost wholly confined to

¹⁸Ibid.

¹⁹Radhakamal Mukerjee, Migrant Asia (Rome: Tipografia Failli, 1936), pp. 70-72 cited in ibid., p. 101.

²⁰Kindsley Davis, op. cit., p. 101.

²¹R. D. McKenzie, "Oriental Immigration", in Encyclopedia of Social Sciences (New York: The McMillan Company, October, 1933), Vol. 11, pp. 490-494.

the British territory of South America, the West Indies, South and East Africa and the Island of Fiji.

It is noteworthy that the United Kingdom, of whose empire India had been an integral part for nearly two hundred years, is the most recent of the countries to which Indians have immigrated in significant numbers. In the past, Indians had come to the United Kingdom mainly as sailors, students, professional men, businessmen and politicians, usually to return after their mission was accomplished. Some of them did settle down but their number was never very large. As to their approximate number, Kondapi wrote in 1949, two years after India became independent, that--

there are 5,000 Indians who have been for a fairly lengthy period in the United Kingdom. They have entered a number of leading professions. A large number are in the medical profession--no less than 1,000 are practising throughout Britain. About 200 are in London.²²

The Indian immigration to Britain became numerically significant only after the end of World War II and especially only after 1952²³ when the migration of European labour to Britain came to an end.²⁴ According to Wood, the number of Indian and Pakistani immigrants in February 1960 was between

²²C. Kondapi, Indians Overseas, 1838-1949, New Delhi: Indian Council of World Affairs, 1949, p. 360, cited in, Rashmi Desai, Indian Immigrants in Britain (London: Oxford University Press, 1963), p. 3.

²³Ibid.

²⁴Economic expansion in the United Kingdom after the war and the resulting labor opportunities attracted immigrant workers from all over Europe, as well as from many parts of the Commonwealth. After 1952, the rapid economic recovery

70,000 and 100,000.²⁵ But according to the most recent estimates the net immigration of Indians and Pakistanis to the United Kingdom during the years 1946-62 was 159,900.²⁶ Desai writes:

Almost all of the Indian immigrants in the United Kingdom came from the two traditional areas of immigration. In these areas--the Punjab and Gujrat--emigration is highly approved and it does not involve any severance of ties with the society of India.²⁷

Indian Immigration to North America

Migration of persons from India to North America is more than half a century old, although it has never been numerically significant up to the present. Indian settlers on the North American Continent have formed communities which extend from the vicinity of Vancouver right down to the Coast to the Mexican border.²⁸ The single largest concentration of Indian immigrants in North America

in Europe, however, created strong labour demand in the Continental countries and stopped large-scale migration of European workers to Britain.

²⁵ Donald Wood, "The Immigrants in the Towns", in J.A.G. Griffiths, et al (eds.) Coloured Immigrants in Britain. (London: Oxford University Press for the Institute of Race Relations, 1960), p. 13.

²⁶ "International Migration News", in the International Migration Digest, Vol. 1, No. 2, Fall 1964, p. 208.

²⁷ Rashmi Desai, op. cit., p. 2.

²⁸ Leo Davids, op. cit., p. 387.

has been, and perhaps, even today, is in Vancouver, British Columbia.²⁹ The Indians here are principally Sikhs from the Punjab, a religious sect only about 500 years old.³⁰ The Sikhs are a martial group who have rejected the caste system and other Hindu principles.³¹

First arriving in 1899, the Indian settlers had been preceded by a considerable number of students, merchants, and tourists who did not stay in America and Canada.³² Economic opportunities, publicized by steamship companies, industrial concerns, and soldiers returning from Queen Victoria's Jubilee in 1887, brought over 5,000 Indians to Canada during 1905-1907. The American immigration was less concentrated.³³

²⁹ A brief but interesting study has been done on the Indian Community in Vancouver. See A. C. Mayer, A Report on East Indian Community in Vancouver, a working paper (mimeographed). (Vancouver: Institute of Social and Economic Research, University of British Columbia, 1959).

³⁰ See H. F. Angus, "People of East Indian Origin", in Encyclopedia Canadiana, Vol. 3, pp. 331-332.

³¹ For more detailed information see, Marian W. Smith, "Sikhs and Growth of Sikhism", in Encyclopedia Americana (New York: Rand McNally and Company) 1963 edition, Vol. 24, pp. 816-818.

³² Leo Davids, loc. cit.

³³ A. C. Mayer, op. cit., p. 2, for detailed information. Also see, R. K. Das, Hindustani Workers on the Pacific Coast (Berlin: Walter de Gruyter & Co. 1932), pp. 4-16, referred to in ibid.

Almost all of these settlers were males and generally came with the intention of earning money and going back to India. The majority of them actually did that, but some found the improved conditions more tempting than a return to their families in India. Feelings against Asian immigration erupted in 1907³⁴ and immigration of Indians to Canada almost completely ceased for the next year. Legislation intended to restrict severely the emigration from India was passed in both Canada and India.³⁵ A series of efforts to enter, notably by the test case of the "Komagata Maru"--the Japanese ship which, in 1913, arrived with Sikh settlers on board from China--only succeeded in getting the Canadian Government to agree to admit a small number of dependents as "an act of grace".³⁶ Thus the original immigration of

³⁴For fuller understanding of the public attitude toward Asian immigration, in Canada in particular, and immigration in general, one must not overlook the importance of economic factors in generating these attitudes. "The years 1904 and 1907-8, for example, were years of recession and crisis in Canada. They were, however, years of large increases in immigration, a situation which added materially to difficulties already present The prejudices which emerged were by no means confined to persons with coloured skins and finally developed between the Wars into the rationalization of prejudice embodied in the Displacement Theory. This theory rejected immigration into Canada per se as a favourable influence on the expansion of population and as an employment-creating phenomenon." M. F. Timlin, "Canadian Immigration Policy: an analysis", International Migration (Vol. III, No. 1-2, 1965), p. 53.

³⁵Mayer, op. cit. Also, "The entry of East Indians was checked by a series of Orders in Council passed under the Canadian Immigration Act." H. F. Angus, op. cit., p. 331.

³⁶Ibid., p. 3. The words enclosed in quotation marks, appear in that form in Mayer also.

Indians was a source of political controversy. It caused a widespread resentment and hard feeling toward Canada, especially in Punjab and the case of Komagatu Maru "has become a cause célèbre".³⁷ It was only after the Imperial Conference of 1917 that wives and minor children of Indian settlers already in Canada were allowed to join them.³⁸ Because of financial difficulties, however, only a few of the settlers, in fact, did bring their families at that time. The overall number of Indian immigrants settled in Canada kept on decreasing steadily, until there were only an estimated 1100 in British Columbia in 1939.³⁹ With the exception of an estimated fifteen families living in Vancouver, this number was almost entirely composed of single males at the outbreak of the World War II.

On first arrival, the Indians, mostly Sikhs, found employment as unskilled labour. Angus points out that the Canadian Census of 1951 shows that more than half of them live on farms or in small towns; many work in sawmills, or shingle mills.⁴⁰ Some have joined the professions but their number is very small. In addition, the Indian Community, especially in Vancouver, has produced a few very successful businessmen.

³⁷ H. F. Angus, op. cit., p. 331.

³⁸ Ibid.

³⁹ A. C. Mayer, op. cit., p. 2.

⁴⁰ H. F. Angus, loc. cit.

The year 1947 appears to mark the beginning of an important change in the attitude of the Canadian Government as well as people, towards Asian immigration and the status of the Asians in general. Sovereign political status gained by India in 1947 and the greatly increased prosperity in Canada, among other factors, were perhaps important in changing Canadian attitude which culminated in the coming into force of the Canadian Immigration Act in 1947.⁴¹ This Act, in addition to giving legal status to those who had entered Canada clandestinely in previous years, allowed the settlement of an annual quota of 150 Indians. Further, the exchange of notes in 1951 provided for the admissibility of the wife, husband or children under 21 of a resident of Canada who could ensure their support.⁴² In 1957, further negotiations between the governments of the two countries resulted in the Canada-India Immigration Agreement. This Agreement raised the quota to 300 persons, half of whom were to be on a non-preference quota comprising people who applied for permission to emigrate at the Canadian High Commission in New Delhi.⁴³

From the foregoing it appears that it took Canada close to one hundred years to evolve an "intelligent" immigration policy which is prepared to reject at least in

⁴¹A. C. Mayer, op. cit., p. 2.

⁴²H. F. Angus, op. cit., p. 331.

⁴³A. C. Mayer, op. cit., p. 3.

principle, the considerations of racial origins and "cultural incompatibility" of prospective immigrants and requires instead

. . . that selection of immigrants takes cognizance of the occupations and capacities of these immigrants and of the size and nature of employment opportunities for them in relation to the existing patterns of growth in the various regions of the economy.⁴⁴

Present policy respecting immigration to Canada is embodied in regulations adopted by Order in Council in January of 1962.⁴⁵ These regulations which became effective on February first of that year, have removed the long-standing racial aspects from requirements for admission and have placed them instead on the "education, training, skills, or other special qualifications" of persons "likely to be able to establish themselves in Canada."⁴⁶

The changes in immigration policy embodied in regulations of 1962 are truly revolutionary in character. They have made it possible for Canada to use heretofore untapped sources of skilled manpower and thus maintain her economic growth at a satisfactory level. It has been argued by Timlin that--

⁴⁴M. F. Timlin, op. cit., p. 52.

⁴⁵Order-in-Council of the Privy Council, cited in ibid., as P.C. 1962-86, and to be cited hereafter in this thesis in that form.

⁴⁶Ibid., Section 31. The sole element of discrimination left in the present policy comes under regulations pertaining to the right of sponsorship of Canadian residents. The citizens of any country in Europe including Turkey, of any North, Central or South American country or of any adjacent islands, or of Egypt, Israel or Lebanon, may sponsor their relatives without limitations on age or marital status. Limitations of age and Marital status, are operative, however, in the case of citizens from other countries of Asia and Africa. See P.C. 1962-86, Sub-section (d) of Section 31.

The current economic expansion has undoubtedly been lengthened and has been assisted in avoiding inflation through the world-wide search for the professional and skilled workers whose increased entry operates to prevent or at least to mitigate bottle-necks in the structure of labor.⁴⁷

Furthermore, this world-wide search for skilled people, resulting from the 1962 regulations, has succeeded in bringing 46,477 professionals to Canada during the short period of four years i.e., between 1962-65 (see Appendix B). This is an impressive number when compared with the 98,541 professionals that migrated to Canada during the previous sixteen year period, i.e., between 1946 and 1961. For every successive year since 1962, the number of professional workers has been on the increase. So much so, that in 1965, the number (16,654) of such migrants admitted to Canada was the largest in any one year since the end of World War II, (see Appendix B), and perhaps the largest ever in the history of Canadian immigration.

As regards immigration from India to Canada, the new regulations have affected a change not only in its volume but its character as well. The number of Indian immigrants to Canada has been steadily increasing since the coming into effect of the new regulations in February 1962. Approximately four times as many Indian immigrants came to Canada in 1965,

⁴⁷Ibid., p. 55.

(2,241) as in 1962, (529).⁴⁸ Similarly, the proportion of professionals among the Indian immigrants has sharply increased. Not only that, immigration from the whole of Asia has been affected. In 1962, labour entrants from South and East Asia had the largest percentage of any for the highly skilled category.⁴⁹ Attention will be directed shortly to the proportion of professional or highly skilled people among Indian immigrants to Canada during the last few years.

Migration of persons of Indian origin from India to the United States appears to have been in effect since as far back as 1820, the year when, for the first time, the United States started keeping a regular record of the entry of aliens to its territory; but the number of persons migrating until the end of the last century was insignificant.⁵⁰ It was the first decade of this century in which a relatively large number (4,713)⁵¹, and perhaps the largest number in any one decade up to the present, of Indian immigrants

48

For information on Canadian Immigration, for 1962 see, Government of Canada, Annual Report of the Department of Citizenship and Immigration, 1962-63 (Ottawa: 1963), Table 9, pp. 48-53; for 1965, see, Government of Canada, Immigration Statistics, 1965, Department of Citizenship and Immigration, (Ottawa 1965), Table 4, pp. 10-13.

⁴⁹M. F. Timlin, op. cit., p. 60.

⁵⁰For example, during the eighty-year period of 1820-1900, only 696 persons from India are recorded to have entered the United States of America. Moreover, up to 1867, the records kept on entry of aliens did not discriminate between "immigrants" and "passengers". See, Encyclopedia Americana, op. cit., Vol. 27, pp. 333-337.

⁵¹Ibid., p. 337.

officially entered the U. S.;⁵² but before this migration from India to the United States could gather further momentum the Immigration Acts of 1917 and 1924 were passed there. By these acts, all immigration from the Orient, including India, was banned.⁵³ Only after World War II, in 1946, was this ban removed on Indian immigration and Indians, like other Asians, placed on the quota system.⁵⁴

Presently, Indians constitute one of the smallest Oriental groups in the United States--2,405⁵⁵ in 1940, and perhaps the least known of all ethnic groups in that country.

52

It is noteworthy that Canada, like the U. S., also received perhaps the largest number of immigrants from India in any one decade, during the same years. The factors giving rise to this sudden "invasion" of the United States by Indians would appear to be similar to those outlined earlier in relation to Indian immigration to Canada. Primary among those, in addition to the traditional attractions of greater economic and perhaps social opportunity, might have been the improved transportation facilities.

53

The entry of Chinese was restricted earlier by the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882, but American restrictive acts were not directed against any specific race or nationality other than the Chinese until after World War I. See, Edwin R. A. Seligman, "Immigration", in Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, op. cit., Vol. 7, p. 592.

54

Maurice R. Davie, "Immigration and Migration", in Encyclopedia Americana, op. cit., Vol. 14, 715.

55

Yusuf Dadabhay, "Circuitous Assimilation Among Rural Hindustanis in California", Social Forces, Vol. 33 (1954), p. 138. The number of Indians in the United States in 1940, as given by another source, however, is 5000. See Kingsley Davis, op. cit., p. 101.

As Dadabhay points out, the bulk of the Indian settlers in the United States are spread over California. They are scattered over a wide area from San Diego to San Francisco and inland, at diverse points in the Central and Imperial Valleys, often on isolated farms. Some settlers are also resident in such states as Colorado, Arizona, New Mexico and Texas.⁵⁶

The majority of these Indian settlers in south-western United States are Sikh emigrants from the rural villages in the Punjab, with a handful from Gujrat, Bengal and Madras. Many have lived there for more than thirty years and are chiefly engaged in farming, either as small owners or farm labourers. Unlike their counterparts in Canada, especially in Vancouver, where they have formed a distinct Indian community maintaining close connections with India, the Indians in south-western U. S., because of their scattered settlements and intermarriage with the Mexicans, are very much less distinct a group and are almost assimilated into the society of that region.⁵⁷

Indian immigration to the United States of America since India's independence and especially after the McCarran-Walter Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952, has started

⁵⁶Kingsley Davis, ibid., p. 140.

⁵⁷Since before 1946 peoples and races indigenous to India were ineligible for naturalization, the Indian settlers could not bring wives from India. California legislation prohibited marriages between Indians and white women until 1950. See Y. Dadabhay, op. cit., p. 140. The "manifest"

again. Because of quota requirements, however, the rate of immigration is not likely to grow significantly. Further, because the present policy of the United States is highly selective in regard to the kinds of people to be allowed into the country, the kinds of persons immigrating from India probably differ remarkably from those of the earlier part of the century. The needs of the national economy characterized by high technological and industrial sophistication are apt to direct the search for persons with advanced professional and technical skills. It is highly likely, therefore, that whatever small numbers of Indians immigrate to the U. S., they will have to be scientists, professors or engineers, and not persons who can offer nothing but cheap labour.⁵⁸ Quick economic advantage in his migrating to the United States on the one hand, and the poor economic plight of the Indian intellectual at present in India on the other, are apt to reinforce this trend.⁵⁹

function of this legislation, suggests Leo Davids(op. cit.), was to force the Indians to return home instead of settling permanently, by keeping their women out. One of the "latent" functions of this restriction, however, may have been the intermarriage between Indians and Mexicans and hence ease in the assimilation of the former.

⁵⁸Some data on the number of Indians who have immigrated to the U.S.A. in recent years is available. Compared to the 153 in 1950 and 391 in 1960, 1173 entered in 1963 and 634 in 1964. See, U. S. Bureau of Census, Statistical Abstracts: 1965 (86th Edition), Washington, D. C. 1965, Table 118, p. 94.

⁵⁹Edward Shils. The Intellectual Between Tradition and Modernity: The Indian Situation: Comparative Studies in Sociology and History--Supplement I, Monton and Co. The Hague, Netherlands, 1961. Chap. II, pp. 29-41.

II

Migration of Professional Workers to Canada Since 1946.

Since the Second World War the immigration policies of almost all the countries of immigration have become highly selective. This has brought to an end the mass migrations which reached their peak during the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth. During that period, large investments of European capital in thinly populated areas were accompanied by large scale migrations from Europe to those areas.⁶⁰

For a number of reasons highly trained professional workers, for example university graduates, are becoming increasingly mobile and tending to migrate more readily than in the past. Oteiza attributes this new significant trend to the following reasons:

- (1) Advanced training can be used in any developed country without requiring an especially intense effort of adaptation on the part of the professionals involved.
- (2) People of this educational level almost always know at least one foreign language well.
- (3) Communications between top-grade professionals and specialists in different fields is constantly improving, so that people occupying posts of this kind frequently travel between one country and another.

⁶⁰ Brinley Thomas, "International Movements of Capital And Labour Since 1945", in International Labour Review, Vol. LXXIV, No. 3, Sept., 1956.

- (4) The demand for graduate professional workers, especially with scientific and technical qualifications, in most of the more developed countries is outpacing the growth of the educational system and this, combined with the selective migratory policies . . . and the appreciable difference between salary scales in the countries of origin and destination, attracts people with the required skills from less developed countries to more developed ones.
- (5) The cost of transport, even from overseas countries, is reasonable in relation to professional salaries.⁶¹

The phenomenon of the movement of scientists, technologists, and other scholars from one country to another is by no means new. Mobility has always been an important characteristic of the intellectual community. This phenomenon has, in fact, made a significant contribution not only to the progress of science, but in the development of western civilization.⁶² Therefore, what is highly significant about this phenomenon is not so much that it is taking place, but that it is happening on such a large scale; and further, that it is not confined only within the western world. The total number of professional migrants to the five major immigration countries, namely Canada (1946-1961), United States (1949-1961), New Zealand (1956-1961), Australia

⁶¹ Enrique Oteiza, "Emigration of Engineers from Argentina: A Case of Latin American "Brain Drain", in International Labour Review, Vol. 92, No. 6, Dec. 1965.

⁶² G. Beijer, "Selective Migration for and "Brain Drain" from Latin America", in International Migration, Vol. IV, No. 1, 1966, pp. 30-31.

(1947-1960), and South Africa (1946-1961), during the years indicated, was 443,696.⁶³ Canada received the second largest number (98,541) of professional migrants, after the United States, which (in spite of the shorter span of time as compared to that for Canada for which figures are given) received more than half the total number of migrants (245,845) received by the five countries together. Thus, next to the United States, Canada in the post-War years has been able to offer the strongest attraction to the professionals.

Canada, however, also loses a substantial number of her professional people to other countries, especially to her immediate neighbour to the South.⁶⁴ In spite of this loss, however, the net immigration of professionals to Canada during 1950-1960 was 42,342.⁶⁵ About 47 per cent

⁶³This figure was computed from data in "Migrants in Professional Occupations" in The International Migration Digest, Vol. 1, No. 1, Spring 1964, pp. 82-87.

⁶⁴This has greatly alarmed many thinking Canadians in the past, perhaps quite justifiably. "Brain Drain" from Canada continues to be a topic of serious discussion and grave concern. It may be true that Canada loses some of her most brilliant scholars to the United States and suffers a net loss in the number of professionals migrating between the two countries, but it is possible that this loss is not quite so serious as is sometimes understood. Canada enjoys a substantial gain in net immigration of professionals. Moreover, roughly 40 per cent of all those who emigrate to the United States from Canada are nurses. See, George Simons, "There is a Brain Gain for Canada", in Canadian Business, April, 1966, pp. 80-81.

⁶⁵See, The Migration of Professional Workers Into and Out of Canada; 1946-1960, A Professional Manpower Bulletin No. 11. (Ottawa: Economics and Research Branch, Department of Labor, October 1961), Table 15, p. 39.

of the total net immigration of professionals for the period consisted of three groups: engineers 6,984, draughtsmen and designers 6,510 and teachers and professors 6,359. All other groups stood far below in terms of this contribution to the net immigration of professional workers.⁶⁶

An important feature of migration of professional workers to Canada, one that is especially relevant to the present study, is that the proportion of teachers and professors among this group has always been substantial. (See Appendix B.) Since 1958, it has stayed roughly at twenty per cent of the total number of professional migrants. During the last four years alone, 9,566⁶⁷ teachers and professors have entered Canada as immigrants. One wonders, how many of these teachers and professors do actually join the stated profession(s) after reaching Canada. It is interesting as well as significant that Canada appears to have been relying continually on foreign sources for a substantial proportion of its teacher supply.

With specific reference to the immigration of professionals from India it should be observed (Table 3.1)

⁶⁶Ibid., p. 38.

⁶⁷This number includes 2,685 professors, 6,244 school teachers and 637 other instructors. Before 1962, the data did not use this differentiation and only total number of all kinds of teachers, was reported. In this study, the use of the term "teachers and professors" includes the instructors in it too. For data source in this footnote, see, Appendix B.

TABLE 3.1

INDIAN IMMIGRATION TO CANADA SINCE 1957 -
TYPE OF PROFESSIONAL BACKGROUND OF IMMIGRANTS BY YEAR
OF ENTRY

Year	Total Immigra- tion from India	Number of Workers Among the Immigrants	Professional Workers Among Total Workers	Professionals as Per Cent of Total Workers	Numbers of Teachers & Professors Among Pro- fessionals	Teachers & Professors as Per Cent of all Prof- essionals.
1957	324	161	54	33.5	4	7.4
1958	451	228	65	28.5	15	23.0
1959	716	454	134	29.5	31	23.1
1960	673	417	184	44.1	58	31.5
1961	744	400	216	54.0	85	39.4
1962	529	256	171	66.8	52	30.4
1963	737	291	189	64.9	75	39.7
1964	1,154	530	298	56.2	79	30.4
1965	2,241	1,092	631	57.8	169	26.8

- 51 -

Source of Data: Annual Reports of the Department of Citizenship and Immigration for each of the years included in the Table, except 1965, were used to obtain relevant data. In Annual Reports for the years 1957 to 1961 inclusive, Table 7 on immigration in each was used; for the years 1962 to 1964 Table 9 in each was used. For the year 1965, Immigration Statistics 1965, Table 4 was used. Professional and non-professional categories used for classifying immigrants are based on intended occupation and not actual occupations in Canada.

that although the number of such migrants in absolute terms is small, relative to the number of all workers from India who immigrated in any particular year since 1960, it forms a very high proportion. In no single year since 1961, has the number of professional workers formed less than 54 per cent of the total number of immigrant workers. Taking a particular year, a year when professionals comprised a proportion larger than usual among British immigrant workers,⁶⁸ the proportions of professionals among Indian and British immigrants, those able to join the work force, were 64.9 per cent and 40.5 per cent respectively.⁶⁹ Further, the number of professional workers among immigrants from India has shown a sharp increase, especially in 1964 and 1965.

Migration of Indian Teachers to Canada and Especially to Alberta.

So far in this chapter, an effort has been made to show that the migration of professional workers to Canada in recent years in considerable number is a part of the world-wide phenomenon of the migration of highly skilled workers across national borders, which seems to have become numerically more significant since the end of World War II. It is suggested that the migration of professionals to this country is very much a part of this wider phenomenon unfolding itself on the international stage.

⁶⁸M. F. Timlin, op. cit., p. 56.

⁶⁹Ibid.

Suggestion has also been made, from the examination of the relevant data for the last few years, that Canada has attracted relatively large numbers of teachers from overseas. In fact, roughly fifteen per cent (Appendix B) of all the professional migrants to Canada since 1946, have been either teachers or professors. In the light of this apparent demand for teachers in Canada and the changes in immigration policy towards Asia, it appears hardly unusual that teachers and professors have formed a substantial proportion of the Indian immigrants comprising the professional category (Table 3.1). Over a quarter of them have been either teachers or professors during the last six years. Between 1962 and 1965, 213 school teachers, 144 professors, and 18 instructors have immigrated to this country.⁷⁰ It is very likely, that teachers from India are teaching in almost every province in Canada, from Newfoundland to British Columbia. Their concentration, however, will vary from province to province. Alberta may have the largest number of Indian teachers⁷¹ but this statement is difficult to document due to the absence of any published information.

⁷⁰ Before 1962, the figures for migrating teachers were published without the present breakdown into teachers, professors and instructors. Hence the choice of the period 1962-65 for the present illustration.

⁷¹ The investigator has estimated that during the academic year 1965-66, there were one hundred Indians teaching across Alberta. The number for the year preceding was 81 known and 85 at the maximum.

Migration of Indian Teachers to Alberta

Alberta's schools are experiencing a shortage of teachers, but this shortage is neither a new nor a temporary problem in Alberta. Ever since the organization of the Province in 1905, there has been a persistent gap between teacher demand and teacher supply. Only once in the 60 years of the history of this Province, that is, during the 1930's, was this gap closed for a short period.⁷² A 1952 study in the Faculty of Education pointed out the seriousness of the teacher shortage for the next fifteen years, showed what different demographic factors were responsible for it, and made some projections as to the future number of teachers required for the next few years to meet the educational needs of the growing Alberta population.⁷³

In spite of the various measures taken by different agencies to attract more Albertans to meet the growing demand for teachers, the Province has had to depend on a considerable number of teachers from outside to cope with the situation. The trend of teacher movement to this Province has developed remarkably since the end of World War II.⁷⁴

⁷²The Teacher Shortage in Alberta, A Brief Prepared by the Faculty of Education, University of Alberta, Edmonton, January 1953, p. 1.

⁷³B. Y. Card, "Population Trends Related to Alberta's Teacher Demand and Supply", mimeographed, Faculty of Education, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1952.

⁷⁴Only 25 teachers from outside the Province were issued Alberta teaching certificates for the 1945-46 school year. See "Teacher Movement", Fifty-second Annual Report of the Department of Education of the Province of Alberta: 1957, Edmonton, 1958, pp. 75-76.

During the eleven-year period between 1947-1957, 3,087 teachers (including 660 who were issued Letters of Authority) from outside took up teaching duties in Alberta.⁷⁵

Due to the rapid expansion and development of public education, necessitated to some extent by the post-war "baby boom", the Alberta teaching force has experienced approximately seven per cent annual increase for the last ten years.⁷⁶ The number of new teachers employed in Alberta in September 1964 (2,581)⁷⁷ gives some idea of the magnitude of the teacher demand which still persists. Roughly one-fifth of this number had to be recruited from outside.⁷⁸

The Province of Saskatchewan has been, for years, the single biggest outside source of supply to meet this demand. The Superintendents of Schools and various School Boards, however, have had to reach out farther afield to get their teachers every year. Data presented in Table 3.2 show the outside sources of teacher supply and the number of teachers coming from them each year between 1955-1965. If the issuance of interim certificates⁷⁹ is any indication

⁷⁵Ibid., pp. 75-76.

⁷⁶M. T. Sillito, and D. B. Black, The Alberta Teaching Force, September 1964 (Edmonton: Alberta Teachers' Association, 1965), p.3.

⁷⁷Ibid., p. 4.

⁷⁸Ibid.

⁷⁹Interim certificates to outside teachers are issued only after they become bonafide residents of Alberta and join the teaching force.

TABLE 3.2

NON-ALBERTA TEACHERS WHO RECEIVED ALBERTA (INTERIM) CERTIFICATION
DURING EACH ACADEMIC YEAR (SEPTEMBER 1 to JUNE 30 OF NEXT YEAR)
BETWEEN 1955 to 1965, BY PLACE OF ORIGIN^a

Academic Year Ending June 30 of	Total Interim Certificates Issued to Non- Albertans	Coming from Other Canadian Provinces	Coming from Great Britain	Coming from U.S.A.	Coming from Other Countries
1955	331	239	55	23	14
1956	238	196	35	4	3
1957	305	263	32	6	4
1958	404	301	78	18	7
1959	368	286	64	14	4
1960	511	372	82	29	28
1961	622	405	79	72	66
1962	647	488	48	70	41
1963	690	569	33	56	32
1964	743	609	36	47	51
1965	812	627	63	78	44

^aSource of Data: Annual Reports of Alberta Department of Education for the years
1955 to 1965. The Registrar's report on "General Teacher
Certification" includes the information used herein.

of immigration of teachers to Alberta, then Alberta has been getting increasingly large numbers of outside teachers during the last few years. A majority of these teachers have migrated from other provinces in Canada, but a substantial number has immigrated each year, especially since 1960 from other countries as well. Between 1960 and 1965, 341 teachers from Britain, 352 from the U. S. A. and 262 from other countries came to Alberta (Table 3.2).

The migration of Indian teachers to Alberta is not an isolated phenomenon, but a part of this general immigration of teachers to this Province. Data presented in Table 3.3 give some indication regarding the beginning of this movement. The records of the Department of Education prior to 1955 show that no teachers from India were ever issued any Alberta teaching authority before the 1954-55 academic year. The present movement of Indian teachers to Alberta did not start before the 1959-60 school year.

This small but continuous movement since 1959, is likely to continue in the foreseeable future. All indications are that the demand for teachers in the Province is likely to continue at the present level at least for some years. Moreover, it is probable that the presence of Indian teachers in Alberta for several years now, is functioning as an agent of diffusion of knowledge in at least those parts of India from which these teachers come.⁸⁰ These

⁸⁰In addition to teachers, a number of Indian doctors, engineers, draughtsmen, lawyers and other professionals from India (plus a hundred or so students at the University) are living and working here. Their presence also provides

TABLE 3.3

TEACHERS FROM INDIA WHO WERE ISSUED ALBERTA INTERIM TEACHING CERTIFICATES BETWEEN 1955 AND 1965^a - KIND OF CERTIFICATE^b BY YEAR IN WHICH ISSUED

Academic Year Ending June 30 of	Profes- sional	Standard Secondary	Standard Elemen- tary	Junior Elemen- tary	TOTAL
1955	--	1	1	2	4
1956	--	--	--	--	--
1957	1	--	--	--	1
1958	--	--	--	--	--
1959	--	--	--	--	--
1960	3	4	--	--	--
1961	--	10	1	1	12
1962	13	6	--	2	21
1963	9	4	--	1	14
1964	8	10	1	--	19
1965	8	17	--	2	27
TOTAL	42	52	3	8	105

Source of data: ^aAnnual Reports of Alberta Department of Education for the years 1955 to 1965. The Registrar's report on "General Teacher Certification" includes the information used herein.

^bUnder the provisions of Order in Council No. 70-50, the new regulations governing certification of teachers in Alberta became effective on July 1, 1950. Previously there were in existence eleven different types of certificates. Under the new regulations only three main classes of certificates were to be issued, namely: Standard Elementary (or Junior Elementary), Standard Secondary, and Professional. (For a detailed description of these certificates, see forthcoming chapter on Professional Characteristics of Respondents.)

factors, in conjunction with the present Canadian immigration policy, favour such a movement.

To conclude, it may be remarked that the last ten years or so are marked by the introduction of new actors on the Alberta stage. It has been suggested that the movement of these new "actors", i.e., Indian teachers and other professional workers, should be placed in a broader perspective. This perspective is provided by the large-scale movement of this type of individuals as a world-wide phenomenon. Effort has also been made to point up the importance, especially economic, to the immigration, and, by implication to the emigration countries, of this social phenomenon. Study involving the participants in this "drama", therefore, merits attention both on theoretical grounds as well as for its practical usefulness.

incentive for emigration to their friends and relatives in India. In migration of individuals, this sort of contact is known to play an important role.

CHAPTER IV

ECOLOGY OF INDIAN TEACHERS IN ALBERTA (1964-65)

The aim of this chapter is to present and discuss the ecological information on Indian teachers working in Alberta during the 1964-65 school year. It is considered that the information on the type, location, size and setting of the communities where the respondents in this study found teaching positions and were working at the time of the survey, is of sociological importance. Teachers, like other professionals, exhibit a strong tendency to move, in search of whatever satisfactions they happen to seek in their work, within the boundaries of systems into which individual schools are linked. For the same reasons, teachers move, not only within but also across the boundaries of different school systems. Howard Becker suggests that the teacher's career is made of a series of such movements, and that each of these constitutes a stage in the career.¹

Factors that motivate teachers to seek jobs in some school systems or in some schools within a school system, in preference to others, are varied. School systems differ in the salaries they pay, in the kind of working and living

¹Howard Becker, "Schools and Systems of Stratification", A. H. Halsey, et al. (eds.), Education, Economy & Society-- A Reader in the Sociology of Education. The Free Press of Glencoe, Inc. (1961), p. 99. On careers, also see E. C. Hughes, "Institutional Office and the Person", American Journal of Sociology, XLIII (November, 1937), 404-13, and Oswald Hall, "The Stages of a Medical Career:", American Journal of Sociology, XLII (March, 1948), 327-36.

conditions they offer, and so on. Similarly, individual schools within a school system differ in the type of children they have as pupils, in the type and size of community in which they are located, and in the location with respect to distance from larger centre(s) of population. School systems offering stronger attractions, such as mentioned above, will succeed in recruiting teachers with better qualifications and of higher quality. In 1964-65 centres with 30,000 or more population in this province, had a much higher proportion (46.35 per cent) of teachers with university degrees than smaller centres (27.70 per cent).²

The desire of teachers to move into better school systems and schools and the capacity of these places to attract better trained persons, both reinforce the trend among teachers to work their way out of the poorer paying, socially constrained rural hinterland into the nearest big cities and larger population centres. The general shortage of teachers in Alberta notwithstanding, this trend is apt to result in a considerable competition in securing teaching positions in "more desirable" schools. The ecological data on Indian teachers, when examined in the light of the preceding discussion, come to acquire special meaning because of their sociological implications. For example, what kind of teaching jobs are

²M. T. Sillito and D. B. Black, The Alberta Teaching Force, September, 1964 (Edmonton: The Alberta Teachers' Association, April, 1965).

available for the immigrant teachers when they come to Alberta? Where do they stand in the competition for desirable teaching positions vis-à-vis Alberta teachers? The data in this study are not sufficient to answer these questions conclusively. Some inferences regarding the general trends, however, can be drawn from them.

With respect to Indian teachers in Alberta, the ecological factors reported in this study are: (1) distribution into counties, school divisions or districts, and school systems, (2) location of schools, (3) kind of schools, (4) size of schools, (5) distance of schools from Edmonton or Calgary, and (6) economic wealth of the school systems.

Distribution into Counties, School Divisions and School Districts

In 1964-65³, Alberta was divided into 59 school divisions and counties and 177 school districts.⁴ The respondents in this study were employed in 11 of the 27 counties, 13 of the 32 school divisions and 11 of the 177 school districts.⁵ Roughly 40 per cent of respondents were employed in each of the two categories, the school divisions and the counties. The other 20 per cent were employed in

³Annual Report of the Department of Education of the Province of Alberta, 1965 (Edmonton: Queen's Printer, 1966), Table II, p. 192.

⁴The 177 school districts were those not in the divisions or counties.

⁵The school divisions, counties, or school districts (35 altogether) across the province in which the respondents were employed are listed in Appendix C.

in school districts of one sort or another.

With the exception of six (8.4 per cent), all the respondents (91.6 per cent) were working in the non-denominational public schools.⁶ The six respondents not working in public schools were employed in Roman Catholic separate or public schools.

Location of Community Where Teaching

The province of Alberta stretches for roughly 856 miles from north to south, bounded by the 60th parallel on the north and the 49th parallel on the south, which also marks the international boundary between Canada and the United States. East to west, it extends approximately 400 miles at the maximum, bounded by Saskatchewan on the east at the meridian 110°W. The western boundary follows the crest of the Rocky Mountains from 49°N in a northwesterly direction for about 400 miles, to where it meets the meridian 120°W, which it then follows to its intersection with the 60th parallel. All together it covers approximately an area of 255,300 square miles.

Respondents in this study were spread all across the map of Alberta, from the fringe areas of northern Alberta

⁶Within the Public School System of Alberta, two kinds of schools operate: Public schools which are non-denominational, and Separate Public schools which are denominational. In communities, with Roman Catholics in the majority and both kinds of schools operating, a Roman Catholic school is called a "Public" school, while a school for non-Roman Catholics is called a "Protestant Separate School". On the other hand, in communities with Roman Catholics in minority, a Roman Catholic school is always called a "Separate" school and the non-denominational school is called a "Public" school.

to the extreme south, and from the relatively newly settled areas in the west to the borders of Saskatchewan. If the province is divided along the 55th, the 53.5th, and the 51st parallels (see map #1), four regions are obtained. The northern-most region starts north of the 55th parallel and includes approximately eight counties/school division within it. The settled areas of this region lie, primarily between the 120°W and 115°W longitude. The major population centres in this areas include, Valleyview, High Prairie, Peace River, Spirit River and Grande Prairie. Grande Prairie, with

TABLE 4.1

GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION OF TEACHERS FROM INDIA IN ALBERTA -
JUNE 1965
REGION OF THE PROVINCE AND SEX OF RESPONDENT

SEX	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	N	%
Location						
Between 55th & 60th Parallel (Roughly Between Edmonton and Valleyview)	16	28.8	5	33.3	21	29.6
Between 53.5 & 55th Parallel (Roughly Between Edmonton and Valleyview)	22	39.3	7	46.7	29	40.8
Between 51st and 53.5 Parallel (Roughly Between Calgary and Edmonton)	13	23.2	1	6.7	14	19.7
Between 51st and 49th Parallel (Roughly South of Calgary to the Montana border)	5	8.9	2	13.3	7	9.9
TOTAL	56	100.2	15	100.0	71	100.1

NORTHLAND SCHOOL DIVISION NO. 61

NAME OF DISTRICT	NUMBER
1. FORT FITZGERALD	4561
2. SWEETGRASS	5110
3. FORT CHIPWYAN	4924
4. FORT McMURRAY	2833
5. ANZAC	4979
6. JANVIER	5114
7. CONKLIN	4835
8. DEVENISH	5181
9. ELIZABETH	4886
10. FISHING LAKE	4850
11. ACOMB	4525
12. CALLING LAKE	4124
13. PELICAN MOUNTAIN	5088
14. DESMARAIS	5112
15. WABASCA	5113
16. TROUT LAKE	5111
17. CHIPWYAN LAKES	5128
18. LOON LAKE	5099
19. LITTLE BUFFALO	5094
20. UTIKUMA	4904
21. ATIKAMEG	5115
22. GROUARD	3722
23. SUCCOR CREEK	5161
24. SOLAR ECLIPSE	5106
25. ELK	5130
26. SOUTH WAPITI	4673
27. SILVER POINT	4701
28. SALT PRAIRIE	4058
29. FORT MACKAY	5145
30. PHILCENA	4904
31. MURIEL LAKE	5144
32. CHRISTINA RIVER	5170
33. CHARD	5175
34. KETTLE RIVER	5164
35. QUIGLEY	5165
36. KINOSIS	5166
37. NORTH WABASCA	5170

NORTHLAND SCHOOL DIVISION (CONT'D)

38. WILLOW RIVER	5171
39. PRAIRIE LAKE	5163
40. NUPATA	5172
41. PARKMAN	5173
42. MARTIN RIVER	5162
43. CADOTTE LAKE	5174
44. OREGON VALLEY	5169
45. MENNO	5167
46. SIMONS	5168
47. WIAU LAKE	5182
48. BENAH LAKE	5183
49. MOOSE PASTURE	5184
50. IMPERIAL MILLS	4954
51. GIFT LAKE	5180
52. CHISHOLM	4632
53. COATLE FOURCHES	5200
54. EMBARRAS	5199
55. OLD FORT POINT	5202
56. MUSKEG RIVER	5092
57. SHAW POINT	5193
58. AIRPORT	5194
59. KEMP CREEK	5079
60. MAYOR HILLS	5021
61. CARCAJOU	4669
62. BLACKBIRD CREEK	5102
63. KEG RIVER	4784
64. PADDLE PRAIRIE	4893
65. MEANDER RIVER	4999
66. STEEN RIVER	5125
67. ANTONBERG	4586

FORT VERMILION NO. 52

46 45 44 43 42 41 39 40 20 21 28 22 25 26 27 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64 65 66

ZONE I

23 12

52

13

17

18

16

15

37

38 14

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

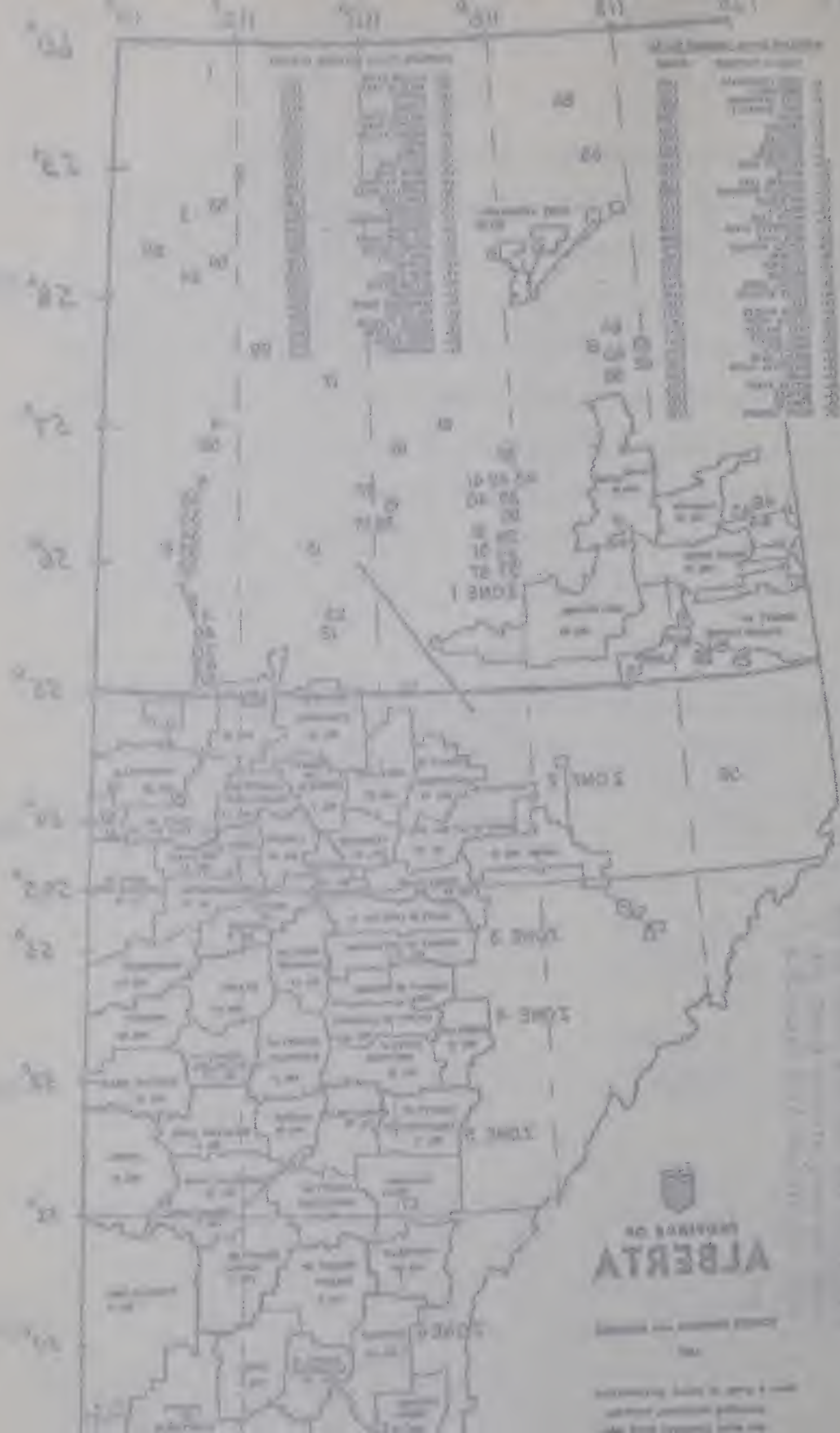
306

307

308

309

310



with 11,129 population in January, 1966, is not only the largest population centre in this region but also the only city north of Edmonton and one that is fast developing into an educational and commercial centre.

This northern-most region is one of glaring contrasts and disparities. On the one hand, there are established and flourishing communities of the Peace River area and on the other hand, there are communities such as those in Improvement District 124 along the southern shore of the Lesser Slave Lake exemplifying marginality and " . . . arrested transition and underdevelopment with respect to North Central Alberta and Peace River regions".⁷ Approximately 45 per cent of the population of I.D. 124 is made up of Canadian Indians and of Metis.⁸

In this region of the province were teaching approximately one-third (29.6 per cent) of the respondents. Out of a total of twenty-one who were teaching in this region, twelve, a majority, were teaching in the school division of High Prairie, which contains the I.D. 124. It is interesting that the single largest group consisting of twelve respondents was concentrated in the schools of the area where a significant section of the population has but little contact with the mainstream of Alberta's social and cultural life.

⁷B. Y. Card, et al., The Metis in Alberta's Society, Prepared for the Alberta Tuberculosis Association (Oct., 1963), p. 69.

⁸Ibid., Table 2.8, p. 58.

The shortest distance between Edmonton and any community in this region where Indian teachers were teaching was approximately 170 miles by road. On the other hand, the longest distance between Edmonton and any northern community where Indian teachers were employed (Rocky Lane in Fort Vermilion School Division), was over 400 road miles from the capital city of Alberta.

The second region as one moves southward lies between the 55th and 53.5 parallels, comprising the North Central Region of the province. The fact that most points in the region lie at relatively short distances from the bustling city of Edmonton and are well connected with it by an extensive network of highways and rail links, keeps them in touch with the established communities in Alberta. There are certain areas in the region, however, which still are part of the pioneer fringe. Conditions around Lac La Biche region, in the Swan Hills area, and in the area north-east of the town of St. Paul resemble those of the pioneer fringe.

This region has numerous long-established and stable communities. Centres like St. Paul, Athabasca, Barrhead, Westlock, Whitecourt, Vegreville and Edson, are fairly large communities, most of them functioning as thriving trading centres amidst prosperous agricultural and farming populations. Moreover, the existence of lumbering industry in the area and the establishment of gas and oil industries in recent times has given a new life to many communities in the region.

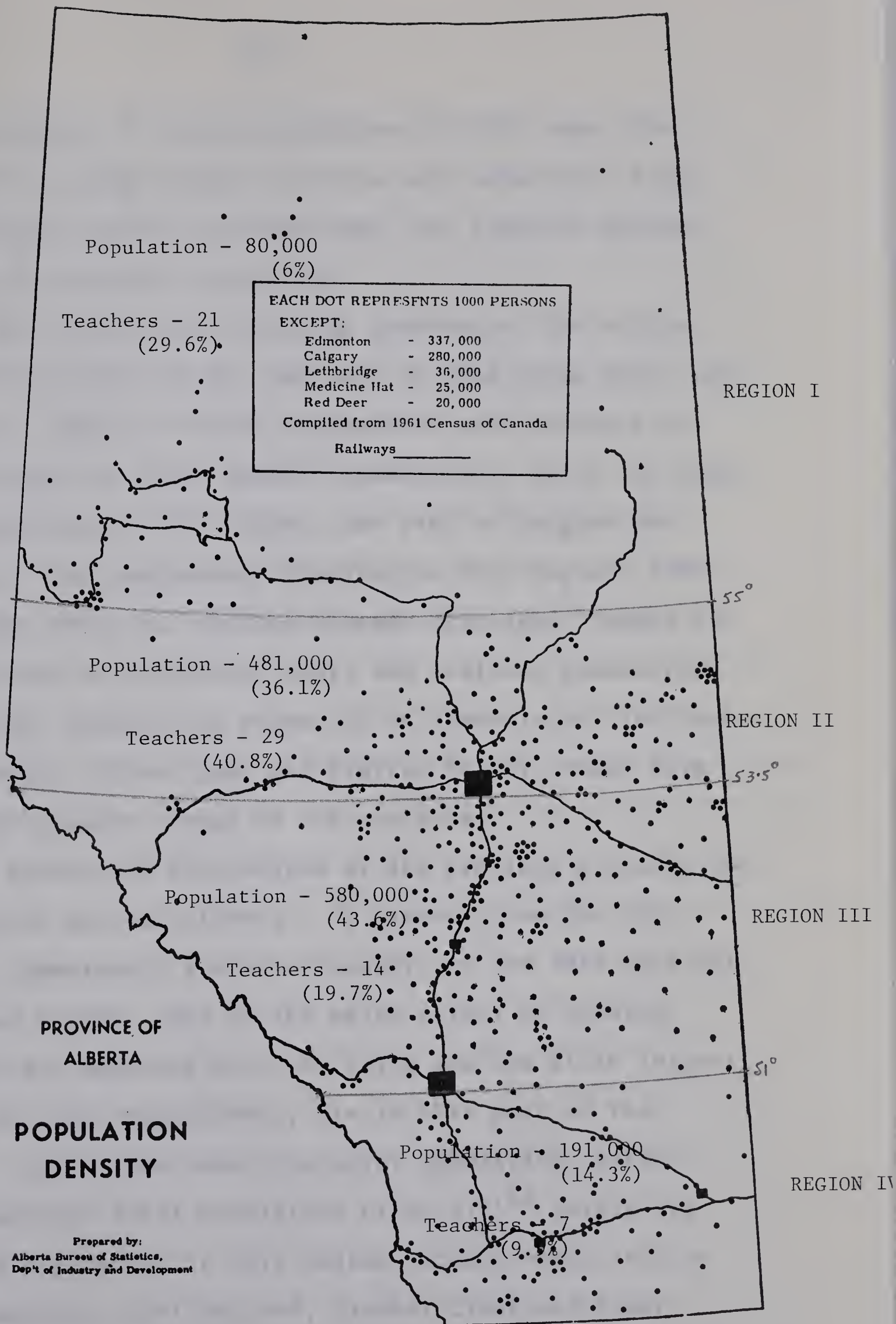
Twenty-nine of the respondents, (40.8 per cent), 22 males and 7 females, were teaching in schools located in this region. Almost every important population centre in this area had one or two teachers teaching in its schools. The single largest group of the respondents (six) in any single school division/county in the region were teaching in the County of Lac Ste. Anne. The second largest group, of four respondents, was teaching in the Bonnyville School Division, the nearest school in that division to Edmonton being 150 miles.

Alberta's third region, starting just south of Edmonton, extends 180 miles southward, to include Calgary, the second largest city of the province. It lies between the parallels 53.5 and 55. In this part of the province lie six of Alberta's ten cities including Calgary, Camrose, Drumheller, Lloydminster, Red Deer, and Wetaskiwin. In addition, numerous well-established and flourishing towns like Ponoka, Lacombe, Stettler, Drayton Valley and Wainwright are situated in this area. Moreover, the largest portion of the province's most fertile farming land⁹, and approximately 44 per cent of its population (approximately 580,000 in 1961)¹⁰, are concentrated between the two parallels bounding this region.

⁹Estimated from the map, Soil Zones of Alberta, as established by Alberta Soil Surveys. (Map distributed by: Department of Extension, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta.)

¹⁰Computed from Map #2. Total population of Alberta according to Census of Canada 1961 was 1,331,944.

MAP OF ALBERTA SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION
(1961) ACROSS THE PROVINCE AND IN EACH OF THE FOUR
REGIONS OF THE PROVINCE WHEN DIVIDED ALONG THE 55TH,
53.5TH AND 51ST PARALLELS



The concentration of large populations in this area, the existence of a large number of cities and relatively large areas of highly fertile farming land, all indicate general stability and economic prosperity.

In this region were teaching fourteen of the respondents in the present study, thirteen of them being males and one female. Twelve of these respondents were teaching in towns, villages or other smaller communities, while the other two were employed in the cities, one each in Calgary and Wetaskiwin. The respondents teaching in this region, like those in the other two regions already discussed, tended to be distributed in relatively small and isolated communities like Donalda, Byemoor and Bowden or in communities like Rocky Mountain House, Sylvan Lake and Drayton Valley, which form part of the pioneer fringe of the province.

The fourth and last region of the province includes the southern-most part of Alberta. It extends from the 51st parallel, immediately south of Calgary, to the 49th parallel, the Montana border. Two of the major cities of Alberta, Lethbridge and Medicine Hat, the third and the fifth largest in order of size respectively, lie in this part of the province. Apart from these two major population centres (with a combined total population of 62,213)¹¹ fairly big centres of population in this region include towns such as Brooks, Cardston, Fort MacLeod, Pincher Creek and Taber.

¹¹ Alberta Department of Highways, Within Our Borders, (Edmonton: Department of Highways, June, 1966), p. 4.

This region, which starts about 130 miles north of the international boundary, is a treeless, rolling prairie and was once covered naturally with short grass. The south-eastern part of this southern-most region of the province forms part of the "dry-belt" and suffers from frequent drought conditions. To overcome the problem of moisture, a limiting factor in crop production, irrigation farming is largely practised, or cattle ranching is substituted for grain growing.

Seven of the respondents, five males and two females, reported teaching in this region of the province. Although the smallest in number as compared to other regions, the respondents were scattered all across the region, as far south as Pincher Creek and as far east as Manyberries. The largest single concentration of the respondents, however, in this region was found in Brooks, a fairly good sized town in southern Alberta.

Table 4.2 summarizes the ecological information discussed so far in the present chapter. Examination of the data shows that a large majority of the respondents (70.4 per cent) were teaching in the northern half of the province if Alberta is divided into northern and southern halves along the 53.5 parallel. To put it differently, 70.4 per cent of the Indian teachers were teaching in that part of the province (Regions I and II) which contained only about 42.1 per cent of the total population. Region III, which alone contained approximately 43.6 per cent of the population of the province had only 19.7 per cent of the respondents working in it at the time of the survey. It is not unreasonable to conclude, therefore, that a

TABLE 4.2

DISTRIBUTION BY SEX OF TEACHERS FROM INDIA IN DIFFERENT REGIONS OF ALBERTA IN JUNE, 1965 - REGIONS WITH APPROXIMATE POPULATIONS AS OF 1961^a

SEX	Approximate Population of Each Region of Alberta					Percentage
Region of the province and its Population as per Canada Census 1961	f	%	f	%	N	
REGION I						
North of 55th Parallel	16	28.8	5	33.3	21	29.6 80,000 6
REGION II						
Between Parallels 53.5 - 55	22	39.3	7	46.7	29	40.8 481,000 36.1

REGION III						
Between Parallels 51 - 53.5	13	23.2	1	6.7	14	19.7 580,000 43.6
REGION IV						
Between Parallels 49 - 51	5	8.9	2	13.3	7	9.9 191,00 14.3
TOTAL	56	100.2	15	100.0	71	100.0 1,331,944 100.0

^aThe population in each region is estimated from Map #2 which shows the population distribution in Alberta compiled from 1961 Census of Canada.

large majority of the respondents in the present study, were teaching in either relatively recently settled regions in the northern areas of the province which form the pioneer fringe, or in communities isolated in nature and at relatively long distances from important population centres.

Kind of Community Where Teaching

Barring a few cases, schools in Alberta are located in communities classified by the Department of Municipal Affairs of the province of Alberta as cities, towns, villages or hamlets.¹² As of January, 1966, Alberta was reported to have 10 cities, 93 towns, and 167 villages.¹³

The examination of the distribution of Alberta population in the different kinds of communities reveals some interesting facts about the distribution of the respondents in Alberta communities. At the beginning of 1966, 55.6 per cent of the population of Alberta was living in cities, 12.2 in towns, 3.5 in villages, and 28.7 in "other" communities.¹⁴ As for the distribution of the respondents (Table 4.3), 8.5 per cent were teaching in the cities, 46.5 per cent in towns, 15.5 per cent in villages and 29.6 per cent in "other" communities. Thus,

¹²Communities with less than a population of 250 are classified as hamlets. Classification of communities in Alberta into cities, towns, or villages is done every year by the Department of Municipal Affairs, Government of Alberta. Information concerning this, used in the present study was taken from The Annual Report of the Department of Municipal Affairs of the Province of Alberta for the year 1964 (Edmonton, Queen's Printer, 1966).

¹³Within Our Borders, op. cit., p. 4. The number of hamlets in the Province is mentioned neither in ibid. nor in The Annual Report of the Department of Municipal Affairs of the Province of Alberta, 1966, op. cit.

¹⁴Percentages of population distribution in different types of communities are as of January 1966, and were computed from information reported in ibid., pp.4-5.

TABLE 4.3
KINDS OF COMMUNITIES IN ALBERTA WHERE TEACHERS FROM INDIA WERE TEACHING IN JUNE 1965 BY SEX OF RESPONDENT^a

SEX Kind of Community	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL		Percentage ^b of Alberta Population in Different Kinds of Communities
	f	%	f	%	N	%	
City	4	7.1	2	13.3	6	8.5	55.6
Town	26	46.4	7	46.7	33	46.5	12.2
Village	9	16.1	2	13.3	11	15.5	3.5
Other	17	30.4	4	26.7	21	29.6	28.7
TOTAL	56	100.0	15	100.0	71	100.1	100.0

^aInformation on classification of communities in Alberta was taken from the Annual Report of the Department of Municipal Affairs of the Province of Alberta for the Year 1964 (Edmonton: Queen's Printer, 1966).

^bComputed from Alberta Department of Highways, Within Our Borders (Edmonton, Department of Highways, June, 1966), pp. 4-5.

despite the fact that more than half the population of Alberta is concentrated in its 10 cities, only less than one-tenth of the respondents were working in them. On the other hand, compared to 44.4 per cent of Alberta's population living in towns, villages and other kinds of communities 91.5 per cent of the Indian teachers were employed in schools located in such communities. One wonders about the reasons for the strikingly low percentage of Indian teachers employed in the cities and their relatively high concentration in towns. As will be seen in Chapter VI, most of the respondents are Senior-High school teachers. It is probable that most of the schools having Senior-High grades are located in towns to which students are bussed from other kinds of communities. If this is, in fact, the case, then at least the concentration of respondents in the towns can be understood. As regards the cities, it is hypothesized that the cities, compared to other kinds of communities in the province, are in a stronger competitive position in attracting Alberta teachers. It should also be kept in mind that teachers from outside Alberta or Canada are likely to be sought primarily to overcome the problem of teacher shortage. It is probable that cities do not experience, in general, this problem as much as other communities.

Size of the Community

Edmonton and Calgary are two metropolitan¹⁵ centres

15

Centres with 100,000 or more population were classified as "metropolitan" in the Census of Canada, 1961.

in Alberta, containing approximately half the population (47.5 per cent)¹⁶ of the province within their limits. The other half of the province's population (52.5 per cent) lives in communities of all kinds much smaller than the two centres mentioned above. These communities exhibit a wide spectrum in terms of size. Some have a fairly large population, e.g., Lethbridge 36, 837, while there are numerous others with less than 250 population.

The respondents in this study reported teaching in communities all across Alberta. These communities differed considerably from one another in terms of size. As seen in Table 4.4, barring 8.5 per cent of the respondents, the large proportion (91.4 per cent) were teaching in communities

TABLE 4.4

SIZE OF ALBERTA COMMUNITIES WHERE INDIAN TEACHERS WERE TEACHING
IN JUNE 1965--POPULATION OF COMMUNITY, BY SEX OF RESPONDENT

SEX Size of Community	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	N	%
Under 250	17	30.3	4	26.7	21	30.0
250 - 999	10	17.9	2	13.3	12	18.3
1,000 - 2,499	14	25.0	4	26.7	18	25.4
2,500 - 4,999	11	19.6	3	20.0	14	19.7
5,000 - 9,999	1	1.8	-	-	1	1.4
10,000 - 99,999	-	-	-	-	-	-
100,000 or more	3	5.4	2	13.3	5	7.1
TOTAL	56	100.0	15	100.0	71	99.9

¹⁶Computed from Within Our Borders, op. cit., p.4

with a population of less than 5,000. Further, roughly half of the respondents (48.3 per cent) were teaching in communities with a population of under 1000 persons, and 30 per cent employed in communities officially classified as hamlets alone. On the other hand, in the two large metropolitan centres of the province, only 7.1 per cent of them were employed at the time of the survey.

When classified by sex of respondents, the data reveal small but interesting differences between females and males in terms of their distribution by size of centre. A larger proportion of females than of males tended to be employed in relatively larger centres. Sixty per cent of female respondents as opposed to 51.8 per cent of males were teaching in centres of 1,000 or more population. In centres of less than 1,000 population, on the other hand, 40 per cent of females and 48.2 per cent of males were employed.¹⁷

Comparisons with the Alberta teaching force suggest that especially, at the two extremes of the distribution of communities by population size, there are wide disparities between the proportion of teachers employed in them in the

¹⁷In Alberta, in 1964-65, differences between the males and females in the Alberta teaching force in this respect, also did exist. But, firstly these differences were relatively minor; and secondly the direction of the differences was opposite to that pointed out in the case of Indian teachers. Males, rather than females, among Alberta teachers tended to be slightly over represented in larger centres, and under-represented in smaller ones. See Table 3.5, p. 11, in M. T. Sillito and D. B. Black. The Alberta Teaching Force, September, 1964 (Edmonton: The Alberta Teachers' Association, 1965).

present sample and in the Alberta teaching force. For example, in communities with less than 1,000 population, compared to the 48.3 per cent of the respondents, only 29.1 per cent of the Alberta teaching force were employed in 1964-65.¹⁸ In the two large metropolitan areas this relative difference between the two proportions is further increased, but its direction is reversed. Compared to the 7.1 per cent of the respondents, 42.45 per cent of the Alberta teaching force were employed in Edmonton or Calgary.¹⁹ The proportion of respondents teaching in small communities was noticeably higher, and of those teaching in metropolitan areas was strikingly lower than the respective proportions of the Alberta teaching force during the academic year 1964-65.

Distance from Edmonton or Calgary (Whichever is Shorter)

The data on distance of the communities in which the respondents were teaching, from Edmonton or from Calgary,²⁰

¹⁸Ibid.

¹⁹Ibid.

²⁰The distance of each community from Edmonton and from Calgary was first determined. Then, only the shorter of the two distances was taken for reporting in this study.

The assumption underlying the selection of Edmonton and Calgary as the only two cities for determining the "distantness" of a community is that these two large metropolitan centres of Alberta are the most important centres for obvious reasons. It is, therefore, hypothesized that the majority of the people living in Alberta perceive them in that manner. As a result, there is a "pull" factor operating in the situation which makes these two cities most attractive to Albertans. Therefore, other things being equal, the closer a community is to Edmonton or to Calgary, the more attraction it holds for people. In the case of teachers, as for others, in general, the farther a community is from at least a commuting distance from these two cities, "the less desirable" will they consider it for seeking employment.

are reported in road miles. As seen in Table 4.5, approximately two-thirds of the respondents (69 per cent) were teaching one hundred or more miles away from either of the principal cities of Alberta. About one-third of the sample (31 per cent) were, in fact, employed in communities two hundred or more miles distant from both Edmonton and Calgary.

TABLE 4.5

DISTANCE OF COMMUNITIES FROM EDMONTON OR CALGARY WHERE INDIAN TEACHERS WERE TEACHING IN JUNE 1965 BY SEX OF RESPONDENT

SEX	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
Distance in Miles from Edmonton/Calgary	f	%	f	%	N	%
None	3	5.4	2	13.3	5	7.1
0 - 49	5	9.0	1	6.7	6	8.4
50 - 99	9	16.0	2	13.3	11	15.5
100 - 149	15	26.7	4	26.7	19	26.7
150 - 199	7	12.5	1	6.7	8	11.3
200 and Over	17	30.3	5	33.3	22	31.0
TOTAL	56	99.9	15	100.0	71	100.0

In addition to the small proportion of respondents (four in Edmonton, and one in Calgary) teaching in the two metropolitan areas, only 23.9 per cent of them were teaching in communities less than a hundred miles away from at least one of the two cities. Most communities lying within one hundred miles of either Edmonton or Calgary are likely to be well in contact with the intensely active and fast pace of city life. Thus they do not suffer from the sheer geographic isolation which the more distant communities can hardly escape.

Economic Wealth of the School Systems

Not all the school systems in Alberta are equally wealthy. Some school divisions, counties or districts form a part of the under-developed and slow-growing regions while others are part of the well-developed and fast-growing regions in the province.²¹ From his analysis of pertinent statistics for 1951 and 1961, Schultz has pointed out that income levels were extremely low in the Beaver, Athabasca and Peace River regions of Alberta.²² In terms of the rate of economic growth, a string of below average regions extends "from north to south throughout Alberta, from the foothills throughout the predominantly mixed-farming area including the irrigated areas."²³ A growth-rate considered satisfactory exists only in the grain-growing regions and cities and metropolitan areas. This uneven distribution of wealth and rate of economic growth influences the capacity of individual educational systems to raise and allocate funds in addition to those available under the Foundation Program, to extend or improve the existing facilities for education in areas under their jurisdiction.²⁴ School

²¹See, Wolfgang M. Schultz, "The Definition And Identification of Slow-Growing Regions", an unpublished paper read by Professor Schultz, of the Department of Agricultural Economics, University of Alberta, Edmonton, at the Symposium, "Stimulants to Social and Economic Development in Slow Growing Regions", September 6-9, 1966, Banff, Alberta.

²²Ibid., p. 14.

²³Ibid.

²⁴The Alberta Department of Municipal Affairs issues every year a Total Equalized Assessment statement for each municipality in the province. This Equalized Assessment represents the value of the taxable property in the area and is utilized for the purpose of determining the contribution

systems able to raise additional funds with relative ease are likely to be in areas which are economically well off and school systems with relatively limited capacity to do so are likely to be in economically marginal or poorer areas. The Total Equalized Assessment per capita in a school system is one of the indices which can be used to estimate this capacity.

The Total Equalized Assessment per pupil in each school system was used to compute the index of economic marginality for Alberta school systems.²⁵ The median value

which the municipality will make to the provincial funds. Also, in cases where a school authority finds it necessary to impose supplementary requisitions upon the member municipalities, such requisitions are allocated on the basis of the equalized assessments of such municipalities. The municipalities which happen to have large Total Equalized Assessment have a larger measure of ease and freedom than those with small Total Equalized Assessment to raise additional funds to improve and extend existing educational facilities. School Systems in municipalities with the greater capacity to raise additional funds are at an advantage in recruiting teachers also. They can offer better working conditions as well as higher salaries.

²⁵To construct this index of economic wealth of each school system, the Total Equalized Assessment per pupil for each of all the 59 school divisions or counties in Alberta in 1963-64 and 16 school districts, 9 of them city and 7 others, was computed. Then the median Total Equalized Assessment per pupil for these 75 school systems was taken. The school systems with Total Equalized Assessment per pupil above or equal to the median value were considered economically well off and school systems with those below it, as economically marginal. The data required to compute this index were the Total Equalized Assessment for each school division, county or district included for this purpose and the Total Enrolment in it. These data were taken from the Province of Alberta, Fifty-Ninth Annual Report of the Department of Education (Edmonton: Queen's Printer, 1965), pp. 117, 127 and 137 (for Total Equalized Assessment), and pp. 178-179 (for Total Enrolment).

The median value of the Total equalized Assessment per pupil for each of the 75 school systems included, was used to separate economically well off school systems from economically marginal ones. The median value of total equalized assessment per pupil was found to be \$4,284. Using this as a cut-off point, it was found that 60 respondents were teaching in the economically marginal school systems and only 11 were employed in economically well off school systems. This finding seems to indicate that economically marginal school divisions, perhaps, because of less attractive working and living conditions and lower salary schedules, find it difficult to recruit Alberta teachers to meet fully their teaching staff needs. Because of these difficulties they are the ones who have to go out of Alberta and, sometimes Canada, to seek teachers. Teacher shortage, in other words, would be a more serious problem in poorer regions of Alberta than in wealthier ones. This finding also points out an important aspect of the process of institutional integration of Indian teachers in Alberta, and, perhaps of immigrant teachers in general.

Summary

In summary, it has been shown that the majority of Indian teachers (69 per cent) were teaching in Alberta communities which are relatively newly-settled and small, and which are quite distant and relatively isolated from the main "centres of civilization". Between 45 and 50 per cent of them were working and living in very small communi-

ties, mainly villages or hamlets with less than 1000 population, and at least a hundred or more miles distant from Edmonton or Calgary. Moreover, they were almost exclusively employed in economically marginal school systems and were conspicuously absent from the cities or other metropolitan areas.

One wonders what would be the implications of this kind of community setting and the experiences of working and living in it, for the general adjustment of the respondents in their professional and community life? Would it be that the relative informality, warmth and intimacy characteristic of the life in small frontier communities is, in fact, well suited for the integration of the respondents into the communal life in Western Canada? Free from the impersonality that is characteristic of interpersonal contact in large population centres, would the small communities in Alberta provide a more suitable setting for the respondents to introduce themselves to and adjust in the Alberta culture?²⁶ On the other hand, is it probable that working and living in relatively poor, isolated and rural communities and economically marginal school divisions, creates additional problems and difficulties for the teachers

²⁶The importance of supportive interpersonal relationships in facilitating accommodation and adjustment has been stressed by more than one researcher. See C. DuBois, Foreign Students and Higher Education in the United States (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1956), p. 96. Also, for its importance, especially in the case of the Indian Students overseas, see, Mary C. Hodgkin, "The Role of Kinship and Authority Patterns in the Cross-cultural Education of Asian Students", Sociology of Education, Vol. 37, Fall 1963, pp. 83-85.

who are complete strangers to the cultural, social and educational institutions of Alberta? In Chapter IX, an effort will be made to explore the probability of relationships between the problems encountered by Indian teachers in Alberta situations and some of the variables discussed in this chapter.

CHAPTER V

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF INDIAN TEACHERS

The study of the phenomenon of professional migration admits of various strategies. One can either undertake a broader analysis of the social, economic, professional or other factors associated with migration of professional workers in general, or assume a narrower focus and concentrate on migrants in a specific profession and study not only the causes or motivations related to the migration of the group but also the process of institutional integration which takes place after migration. The latter approach, which is also that of the present study, requires a comprehensive knowledge of the characteristics, background as well as professional, of the individual migrants. The next two chapters, in the present study, are, therefore, devoted to the description and analysis of background and professional characteristic of the respondents.

The aim of this chapter is to present data on respondents' background characteristics such as sex, age, marital status, place of origin in India, social class position of father, education of parents stay in any other foreign country before migration to Canada, and religion.¹ For sex, age and marital status, comparisons between the respondents and the Alberta teaching force will be made.

¹For a note on collection of information on the religion of respondents, see Chapter I.

Sex and Age

The respondents in the present study were predominantly males. The males (56) outnumbered the females (15) roughly four to one.

Most respondents were relatively young (Table 5.1). A majority (53.5 per cent) of them were between 26 and 35 years of age. The youngest were in their early twenties (only 2.8 per cent), while the oldest, only one, was in his late fifties. More than four out of every five (85.6 per cent) fell within the age-range of 26-45 years, leaving nine respondents above the upper limit and only two below the lower limit of this interval. The median age of respondents was 34.0 years. The males tended to be older (median 34.2) than the females (median 32.6).

Comparison between the Indian teachers in the present study and the Alberta teaching force for sex and age indicates that the two groups are very unlike in terms of sex composition. Females constituted only approximately one-fifth (21.1 per cent) of the respondents but roughly two-thirds (64.2 per cent) of the Alberta teaching force. Thus, while the Indian teachers were predominantly males, the Alberta teaching force was predominantly constituted of females.

With respect to age (Table 5.1), respondents tended to be younger than their counterparts in the Alberta teaching force. The median age (34.0) of respondents was approximately three years less than that (37.1) of the Alberta

TABLE 5.1

COMPARISON OF TEACHERS FROM INDIA AND THE ALBERTA TEACHING FORCE BY SEX AND BY AGE OF TEACHER

SEX	Teachers from India June, 1965 ^a						Alberta Teaching Force September, 1965 ^b					
AGE	f	MALE %	f	FEMALE %	N	TOTAL %	f	MALE %	f	FEMALE %	N	TOTAL %
16 - 20	-	-	-	-	-	-	30	0.5	237	2.4	267	1.7
21 - 25	-	-	2	13.3	2	2.8	1,056	18.2	2,223	22.6	3,279	21.0
26. - 35	31	55.4	7	45.7	38	53.5	2,087	35.9	1,823	18.5	3,910	25.0
36 - 45	19	33.9	3	20.0	22	31.0	1,272	21.9	1,884	19.1	3,156	20.2
46 - 55	5	8.9	3	20.0	8	11.3	844	14.5	2,192	22.3	3,036	19.4
56 - 65	1	1.8	-	-	1	1.4	466	8.0	1,354	13.8	1,820	11.6
66 and over	1	-	-	-	-	-	21	0.4	88	0.9	109	0.7
Not reported	-	-	-	-	-	-	31	0.5	38	0.4	60	0.4
TOTAL	56	100.0	15	100.0	71	100.0	5,807	99.9	9,839	100.0	15,646	100.0
Median	34.2		32.6		34.0		34.2		41.8*		37.1	

^aData on the age of respondents were collected from two sources, from the questionnaire replies and from the Age and Citizenship Statements from the Department of Education of Alberta files.

^bData taken from Alberta Teachers Association Records where these are available in as yet unpublished form.

*The median for married females in Alberta teaching force is 41.8; for the "other" females 34.0.

teaching force. The median age (34.0) of respondents was roughly three years less than that (37.1) of the Alberta teaching force. Breakdown of data by sex, however, indicates that the males in both the groups had exactly the same median age (34.2) while the female respondents were considerably younger (median, 32.6) than the females (median, 41.8) in the Alberta teaching force. The small difference between the median ages of males and females among the respondents, and the large difference between the median ages of males and females among the Alberta teaching force is noticeable.

Marital Status

Among the Indian teachers included in the present study, the married individuals were predominant. As seen in Table 5.2, an overwhelming majority of the respondents were married (81.7 per cent), the percentage of married men (83.9 per cent) being slightly higher than that of the married women (72.3 per cent). Contrariwise 26.7 per cent of the female respondents were single, while only 12.5 per cent of the male respondents were in that position. Of all the respondents, 15.5 per cent were single, 81.7 per cent married, and the balance, 2.8 per cent, were widowed, divorced or separated. No respondent belonged to any religious order.

Comparison with the Alberta teaching force shows that the proportions of single females in both the groups were very nearly the same, and the proportion of single males among teachers in this study was lower than that of the

TABLE 5.2

COMPARISON OF TEACHERS FROM INDIA AND THE ALBERTA TEACHING FORCE BY MARITAL STATUS
AND BY SEX OF THE TEACHER

SEX	Teachers from India June, 1965				Alberta Teaching Force September, 1964 ^a							
	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL N	TOTAL %	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL N	TOTAL %
Marital Status	f	%	f	%			f	%	f	%		
Single	7	12.5	4	26.7	11	15.5	1,099	20.60	27,521	26.80	3,620	25.55
Married	47	83.9	11	73.3	58	81.7	4,110	77.04	5,651	60.06	9,761	66.21
Widowed, Divorced, Separated	2	3.6	-	-	2	2.8	82	1.54	822	8.74	904	6.13
Religions	-	-	-	-	-	-	44	0.82	414	4.40	458	3.11
TOTAL	56	100.0	15	100.0	71	100.0	5,335	100.00	9,408	100.00	14,743	100.00

^aSee Table 3.4, Classification of Alberta Teaching Force by Sex and Female Marital Status, in M. T. Sillito & D. B. Black, Alberta Teaching Force, September, 1964 (Edmonton: Alberta Teachers' Association, 1965), p. 9.

Alberta teaching force. Taking the two groups as wholes, however, the proportion of single subjects in the present study was considerably lower than that of the other group; almost one out of every five teachers in Alberta in 1964-65 was single, whereas among Indian teachers, only one in approximately seven was so. Further, not a single respondent in the sample belonged to a religious order, whereas in the Alberta teaching force, 3.1 per cent of the teachers belonged to religious order(s).

Place of Origin in India

The respondents came from a variety of provinces in India (Table 5.3). Respondents reported their origins from out of the sixteen provinces and nine other territorial nine regions constituting India. One noticeable fact about the place of origin of the respondents, however, is that considerably more than half of them (62.0 per cent) came from the northwestern state of Punjab alone. The province contributing the second largest percentage of teachers (9.9) in the sample is Uttar Pradesh, the second largest of all the states of India in terms of area and population. Punjab has a long history of emigration and, as already indicated in Chapter III, Punjabis are not new especially to the Canadian West and to the Pacific coast of North America in general. The emigration of Indians especially to Vancouver and Vancouver Island dates back to the beginning of the present century. Equally old, but perhaps numerically smaller, is the emigration of Punjabis to certain parts of California

and some other American states along the Pacific coast. Could it be that the diffusion of knowledge in the Province about conditions in Canada via Indian settlers (predominantly Punjabi) in Vancouver, the long and established tradition of emigration there, and influence of relatives and friends already settled in Canada were some of the factors which influenced the migration of such a large number of teachers from Punjab in comparison with other parts and provinces of India?

TABLE 5.3

TEACHERS FROM INDIA BY PROVINCE OF ORIGIN IN INDIA AND BY SEX

Province \ SEX	Population of each Prov. or Territory as Per Cent of India's Total Population in 1961 ^a					
	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	N	%
1. Punjab	38	67.9	6	40	44	62.0
2. Uttar Pradesh	6	10.7	1	6.7	7	9.9
3. Kerala and Mysore	3	5.4	3	20.0	6	8.5
4. Madras	2	3.6	2	13.3	4	5.6
5. Delhi	3	5.4	1	6.7	4	5.6
6. Maharashtra	1	1.8	2	13.3	3	4.2
7. Goa	2	3.6	-	-	2	2.8
8. West Bengal	1	1.8	-	-	1	1.4
TOTAL	56	100.2	15	100.0	71	100.0

a

Data computed from S. H. Steinberg, The Statesman's Year-Book, 1965-66 - One-Hundred-And-Second Annual Publication (New York: MacMillan & Co. Ltd., 1965), p. 385.

The map of India #3 shows the place of origin of Indian teachers in terms of the provinces from whence they came. The number of teachers coming from each province and the percentage they form (indicated in brackets) of the respondents are shown. It is of interest to note that none of the respondents reported his place of origin from the provinces of Madhya Pradesh, Gujrat, Bihar, Orissa, Assam, and Andhara. Especially striking is the absence of any teachers among the respondents from the province of Gujrat, for in the past, hundreds of thousands of persons have emigrated from Gujrat to East and South Africa, Fiji, and especially Britain.² Gujrat, like Punjab, has been known for its tradition of heavy emigration to other parts of the world. Complete absence of teachers from some other provinces excepting Gujrat may be attributable, at least in part, to the relative lack of the established tradition of emigration from those areas of the country. One wonders, however, about the reasons for the absence of Gujrati teachers among the respondents.

Rural-Urban Background

Data with regard to the rural or urban background of respondents is presented in Table 5.4.³ Nearly one in every

²Rashmi Desi, Indian Immigrants in Britain. (London: Oxford University Press, 1963), Chap. I, pp. 1-19; A. C. Mayer, Indians in Fiji (London: Oxford University Press, 1963).

³In India, all the population living in villages is defined as rural, and that living in towns or cities is defined as urban. The size of population living in a community does not necessarily define its rural or urban status. According to the definition followed in 1951 Census, "A town is normally an inhabited locality with a total population of not less than 5,000 persons, but, places with a somewhat larger population which do not possess a definite urban character may not be



Punjab:	44	Delhi:	4
	(62%)		(5.6%)
Uttar Pradesh:	7	Maharashtra:	3
	(9.9%)		(4.2%)
Kerala and Mysore:	6	Goa:	2
	(8.5%)		(2.8%)
Madras:	4	West Bengal:	1
	(5.6%)		(1.4%)

MAP OF INDIA SHOWING THE PROVINCIAL ORIGINS OF INDIAN TEACHERS TEACHING IN ALBERTA IN 1964-65 (ACTUAL NUMBER COMING FROM EACH PROVINCE AND PERCENTAGE IT FORMED OF THE GROUP IS INDICATED)

three of the male respondents reported a rural background; in contrast to this only one in little more than seven of the female respondents reported rural origin. Taken as one group, only a little over a quarter of the respondents (28.2 per cent) reported rural background, the remaining three-quarters (71.9 per cent) reporting urban origins.⁴

TABLE 5.4

PLACE OF ORIGIN OF RESPONDENTS IN INDIA BY RURAL OR URBAN BACKGROUND BY SEX OF RESPONDENT

SEX Origin	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL				
	f	%	f	%	N	%			
Village	18	32.1	2	13.3	20	28.2	Rural	28.2%	(20)
Town/Small City	16	28.6	4	26.7	20	28.2	Urban	71.9%	(51)
Large City	22	39.3	9	60.0	31	43.7			
TOTAL	56	100.0	15	100.0	71	100.1			

Social Class Background

To determine the social class origins of the respondents the occupations of their fathers were assigned to seven prestige categories by using Hollinshead's occupational

treated as towns. At the same time, places with a smaller population with definite urban character (including generally all municipalities and cantonments and other places having a local administration of their own) may be treated as separate towns". Census of India, 1951, I, Part II A, footnoted in Roy Turner (ed.), India's Urban Future (Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1962), p. 30.

⁴This fact should be seen in relation to the rural-urban origins of the total population in India. In 1961, 82 per cent of India's population was classified in rural and 18 per cent as urban. See, Government of India, India 1964 (Faridabad: Government of India Press, 1964), Table 16, p. 21.

scale⁵ in conjunction with D'Souza Indian Occupational scale.⁶ As a result some necessary modifications in Hollingshead's scale, explained in Alpendix D, were made to make it more effective in the interpretation of the prestige hierarchy of occupations in the Indian setting. For example, in Hollingshead's scale "farmers" are assigned to III, IV or V socio-economic scale position depending upon the value of the farm, the ownership rights over land and equipment etc. In the D'Souza Indian occupational scale, however, the "farmer" called "owner cultivator" belongs to the III category from the top irrespective of the farm size, its value or ownership rights. Not knowing the details about the size of the farm and its value etc., in the present study, it was thought more appropriate to assign farmers to the III prestige category on a seven point scale. Similarly, whereas in the Hollingshead's scale the "school teachers", without making any distinction between the grade-levels of teaching, are assigned to category II, in the D'Souza occupational scale the

⁵Hollingshead's occupational scale is a modification of the Alba Edwards system of classifying occupations into socio-economic groups used by the United States Bureau of Census. The essential differences between the Edwards system and the one used by Hollingshead is that Edwards does not differentiate among types of professionals or the sizes of and economic strengths of businesses. In Hollingshead's scale professions are ranked into different groups and businesses are ranked by their size and value. Altogether it uses seven positions on the scale. For more detailed information, see, A. B. Hollingshead and F. C. Redlick, Social Class and Mental Illness: A Community Study (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1958), pp. 390-91.

⁶Victor S. D'Souza, "Social Grading of Occupations in India", Sociological Review, July 1962, 10, pp. 145-159.

the "elementary teachers" are placed in category III. The "secondary school teachers" although not mentioned as a separate occupation in the D'Souza scale will, if comparison is made with other equivalent occupations classified by D'Souza, fall in prestige category II. Therefore, another departure from Hollingshead's scale was deemed necessary in this respect. Elementary teachers were placed in prestige category III while secondary school teachers were assigned to category II. Hollingshead's scale with these two major modifications, was used to determine the occupational prestige position of the fathers of the respondents. Except for the two occupations just discussed, the D'Souza and the Hollingshead scales agreed, in general, as to the socio-economic scale positions of different occupations appearing on both scales, some variations notwithstanding.

Table 5.5 gives the information with respect to the socio-economic class origins of respondents in terms of the occupations of their fathers. Seven prestige categories were used as if they formed a scale, with class I at the top and class VII at the bottom. Data on the socio-economic class origin of respondents indicate that nearly 3 out of every 5 respondents (62.0 per cent) came from the top three classes of the seven point socio-economic scale. Less than one out of every 5 came from the bottom four classes, and the remaining, a little over 20 per cent, either supplied inadequate information or did not reply at all to the question on the father's occupation. Noticeable about the group of 16

TABLE 5.5
SOCIAL CLASS ORIGIN OF RESPONDENTS - OCCUPATIONAL PRESTIGE POSITION OF FATHER BY
SEX OF RESPONDENT

Socio-economic scale position	SEX		MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	N	%
I. Higher executives of large concerns, proprietors and major professionals	1	1.8	2	13.3	3	4.2		
II. Business managers, proprietors of medium sized businesses, and lesser professionals	13	23.2	7	46.7	20	28.2		upper class 32.4% (23)
III. Administrative personnel, owners of small business, minor professionals, and farmers	16	28.8	5	33.3	21	29.6		
IV. Clerical and sales workers, technicians, small business owners	9	16.0	-	-	9	12.7		middle class 42.3% (30)
V. Skilled manual employees	1	1.8	-	-	1	1.4		
VI. Machine operators and semi-skilled employees	-	-	-	-	-	-		lower class 2.8% (2)
VII. Unskilled employees	1	1.8	-	-	1	1.4		
Inadequate information or no response	15	26.8	1	6.7	16	22.5		
TOTAL	56	100.2	15	100.0	71	100.0		

who did not reply to this question is the fact that 15 of them are males, while only one is female.

Another noticeable fact about the social class origin of the respondents is that all the female respondents who replied (14 out of 15), came from the top three classes of the socio-economic scale; in the case of males, 41 respondents replied but only 30 of them came from the top three classes. It seems to be true that, at least in the present sample, the female teachers tend to come from relatively higher socio-economic class background than their male counterparts. If the seven prestige categories are collapsed into three classes, the first containing the top two categories, the second containing the third and fourth categories, and the third containing the last three categories, the respondents can be divided into upper, middle, and lower socio-economic classes in terms of their social origins. According to the three-class classification, 32.4 per cent of the respondents came from the upper class, 42.3 per cent came from the middle class and 2.8 per cent from the lower class. Twenty-five per cent of the male respondents as opposed to 60 per cent of the female respondents reported their social origin in the upper class. On the other end of the scale again, any respondents reporting lower class as their social origin were males only, however small their number. One wonders if this information on the social origins of the respondents in the present study reveals anything regarding the general trend in the social origins

of the respondents in the India in general.⁷

Various studies related to the social origin of teachers done on this continent conclude, howsoever tentatively

. . . that the preponderance of elementary and secondary school teachers come from lower-middle-class backgrounds. This is increasingly true, for the comparison of recent with earlier surveys shows a clear change in this direction, and age comparisons show the younger teacher to have come much more frequently from labor class origins.⁸

In a more recent comment on this question, Grambs has pointed out that in the United States of America, the fathers of fifty per cent of men as well as women teachers are either farmers or skilled or semi-skilled workers, while relatively few teachers come from the homes of professional, clerical or sales, or unskilled workers.⁹ A study done in Ontario, which derived its data from teachers in four non-denominational High schools in Hamilton found, however, that "teachers are . . . of above average social origins as assessed by North-Hatt ratings of their fathers' occupations".¹⁰ The

⁷Information on the social origin of school teachers in India as a whole or in any particular part of the country does not seem to exist. Therefore, it is difficult to say if the trend with respect to the social origins of the respondents in the present study is in any way representative of that for school teachers, in general, in India. However, the predominantly upper class origin of female respondents and the middle class origin of male respondents in this study might, to some extent, reflect the general trend in the recruitment of, at least, secondary school teachers in India.

⁸Orville G. Brim, Jr., Sociology And The Field of Education (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1958), pp. 29-30.

⁹Jean Dresden Grambs, Schools, Scholars, and Society (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1965), pp. 138-139).

¹⁰Frank E. Jones, "The Social Origins of High School Teachers in a Canadian City", The Canadian Journal of Economics And Political Science, Vol. 29, Nov., 1963, p. 534.

Hamilton study did, in fact, point out an increasing trend for High School teachers to be recruited from lower social class origins. As far as the respondents in the present study are concerned, they would appear to be quite similar to Hamilton High school teachers in their social origins but quite different from American teachers in that respect.¹¹

Inter-generational Mobility

According to the seven-class classification used here, all the respondents were regarded as belonging to social class II. When their social class positions were compared to those of their fathers, about 44 per cent of the respondents were found to be socially upwardly mobile (Table 5.6); nearly 4 per cent were downwardly mobile; and close to 30 per cent were not socially mobile at all. No information was available on the social mobility of 22.5 per cent of the respondents because this group did not report the occupation of their fathers.

Out of the thirty-one respondents who had experienced upward mobility, 61 per cent moved one step on the seven point

¹¹The present group of respondents is anything but representative of the school teachers in India in general, therefore, any conclusions pertaining to the latter group will be unwarranted. It might be defensible to say, however, that, compared to the social origins of the teachers in North America, especially in the United States, those of teachers in India are located somewhat higher on the socio-economic scale. The social origins of the Indian teachers may be more homogeneous than those of the former. The social origins of the teachers in India in the present decade may be more comparable to those of the teachers in America in the decades prior to 1920.

TABLE 5.6

INTERGENERATIONAL SOCIAL MOBILITY - KIND OF
MOBILITY BY SEX OF RESPONDENTS

SEX	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Upwardly mobile	26	46.5	5	33.3	31	43.7
Downwardly mobile	1	1.8	2	13.3	3	4.2
Not at all mobile	14	25.0	7	46.7	21	29.6
No response/ Inadequate information	15	26.8	1	6.7	16	22.5
TOTAL	56	100.1	15	100.0	71	100.0

scale , 32 per cent two steps, and the remainder more than two steps. The percentage of male respondents moving up the social scale was greater (46.5) than that of the female respondents (33.3). The percentage of those who did not experience social mobility, however, was greater for female respondents (46.7) than for males (25.0). This difference is accounted for by the fact, however, that the socio-economic status of the fathers of the former was, on average, higher than that of the fathers of the latter. Upward mobility among persons already near the top of the social latter is bound to be low.

Urban population in India is experiencing a relatively high rate of social mobility. A recent survey of a sample of population in Poona, India, clearly reveals the presence of this phenomenon. The survey just mentioned which used a

ten-class occupational breakdown, found that 27 per cent of those of manual origin had risen into the middle classes, and that about one-quarter of those whose fathers were in non-manual positions had become manual workers.¹² The Poona study suggests that urban India has a considerably mobile society. The present study, which uses members of only one occupational group--members who are also emigrants from their country of origin, also seems to suggest a high degree of upward social mobility experienced by the respondents. The limitations of the present sample as to its representativeness, notwithstanding, it suggests a considerable movement within the non-manual category (classes I to IV in the seven-class scale), almost all the movement occurring in the upward direction. There is some indication, though very slight, that mobility from the manual to the non-manual category, is not totally absent. The nature of the sample and the data, however, do not permit any observations with respect to downward mobility, especially from non-manual to manual category. Although the conclusions of the Poona study do not lend themselves to comparison with observations regarding social mobility in the present investigation, it will not be entirely unwarranted to say that the latter do not contradict, if not corroborate, the former.

¹²N. V. Sovani and Kusam Pradhan, "Occupational Mobility in Poona City Between Three Generations", The Indian Economic Review, 2 (1955): 23-36, cited by S. M. Lipset and R. Bendix, Social Mobility in Industrial Society (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1960), pp. 28-29.

Education of Parents

The respondents were asked to give information with regard to the educational training of both of the parents in two parts: highest school grade completed, and further training if any. The data is presented, likewise, in two separate Tables, 5.7 and 5.8. Approximately one-quarter (23.9 per cent) of the respondents supplied no information on "Father's Education", the proportion of males not replying being considerably higher than that of females.

The data in Table 5.7 show that, the fathers of the respondents had somewhat higher level of educational training than that of the mothers. For instance, approximately 50 per cent of the fathers as opposed to only 15.5 per cent of the mothers had the equivalent of grade ten or more education. Moreover, nearly one-quarter (23.9 per cent) of the mothers and only 5.6 per cent of the fathers had no formal education whatever. The same trend is apparent in a more pronounced form in Table 5.8 which presents further training of parents.

When these data were classified in terms of the sex of the respondents, another interesting, but expected fact revealed itself. Almost consistently, the educational level of both the parents was higher for the female respondents than that for the male respondents. There is only one exception to this--a larger proportion (73.3 per cent) of the mothers of females than that (60.7 per cent) of the mothers of males have had no further training (Table 5.8).

TABLE 5.7
EDUCATION OF PARENTS OF TEACHERS FROM INDIA - SCHOOL GRADE COMPLETED BY
BY SEX OF RESPONDENT

Parents		Father's Education				Mother's Education							
School Grade Completed	SEX	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL		MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
		f	%	f	%	N	%	f	%	f	%	N	%
None		4	7.1	-	-	4	5.6	13	23.2	4	26.7	17	23.9
1 - 9		14	25.0	-	-	14	19.7	18	32.2	4	26.7	22	31.0
10 - 12		13	23.2	7	46.7	20	28.2	4	7.1	4	26.7	8	11.3
over 12		9	16.1	7	46.7	16	22.5	2	3.6	1	6.7	3	4.2
No Information		16	28.6	1	6.7	17	23.9	19	33.9	2	13.3	21	29.6
TOTAL		56	100.0	15	100.1	71	99.9	56	100.0	15	100.1	71	100.0

TABLE 5.8

EDUCATION OF PARENTS OF TEACHERS FROM INDIA - FURTHER TRAINING OF PARENTS BY SEX OF RESPONDENT

Parents	Father's Education					Mother's Education				
	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL
	f	%	f	%		f	%	f	%	
SEX					N					N
Further Training of Parents					%					%
None	20	35.7	3	20.0	23	34	60.7	11	73.3	46
University	5	8.9	8	53.3	13	-	-	-	-	-
Teacher Training	7	12.5	2	13.3	9	3	5.6	1	6.7	4
Vocational Excluding Teacher Training	6	10.7	1	6.7	7	-	-	1	6.7	1
Other	2	3.6	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-
No Information	16	28.6	1	6.7	17	18	32.9	2	13.3	20
TOTAL	56	100.0	15	100.0	71	56	100.2	15	100.0	71

Could it be that, other things being equal, in the case of females as compared to males, the education level of parents in India plays much more crucial a role in whether they will get educational training commensurate with their ability or aspirations? Compared to male respondents, a considerably larger proportion of females (Table 5.4) had urban backgrounds; and they also had higher socio-economic class origins (Table 5.5). It might be reasonable to assume that the higher educational level of the parents of female respondents was related to their urban origin and higher social class position. Education of women in India is still an essentially urban, middle- or upper-class phenomenon. The bare literacy rate in India as recently as 1961 (excluding the age-group 0-5) was 24 per cent for the country as a whole, 34.5 per cent for males and only 13 per cent for females.¹³ A great differential also exists between exists between the educational levels of rural and the urban populations.¹⁴

Previous Intercultural Experience: Stay or Travel in
Foreign Countries

The respondents were asked to state if they had any previous experience in either travelling in foreign countries or of living outside India prior to their immigration to Canada. The main interest was to find out if any of the respondents

¹³S. H. Steinberg, The Statesman's Year-Book
One-Hundred-And-Second Annual Publication (New York: MacMillan
& Co. 1965).

¹⁴In India, in 1951, the percentage of literates in the population was as follows: Urban areas - males, 54.7; females, 25.1; Rural areas : males, 23.7; females, 5.2. Information quoted here was derived from World Literacy AT Mid-Century - Mono-graphs on Fundamental Education (Paris: UNESCO Publication, 1957), Table 29, p. 57.

were exposed to living under conditions and with people different from those found in India. It was felt that this might bear some relation to the future plans of the respondents and to their perception of problems within the setting of their work or living.

Roughly two out of every five respondents (42.2 per cent) had lived in some foreign country for a duration of time varying from less than one year to more than five years (Table 5.9). Forty per cent of the female and approximately the same percentage (39.2) of the male respondents have had the experience of living in one or more foreign lands for at least a year or more prior to coming to Canada.

TABLE 5.9

PREVIOUS INTERCULTURAL EXPERIENCE OF RESPONDENTS-
LENGTH OF STAY IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES BY SEX OF
RESPONDENT

Length of stay	SEX	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
		f	%	f	%	N	%
Less than 1 year		2	3.6	-	-	2	2.8
1 to 3 years		8	14.2	2	13.3	10	14.1
3 to 5 years		7	12.5	1	6.7	8	11.3
More than 5 years		7	12.5	3	20.0	10	14.1
None at all		32	57.1	9	60.0	41	57.8
TOTAL		56	99.9	15	100.0	71	100.1

Religion

The religious background of the respondents is quite varied; no single religious group among the respondents

forms the majority of the sample. As seen in Table 5.10, the single largest group are Sikhs; and then the Hindus, Christians and Muslims, in that order. The Sikhs and the Christians are over-represented in the present sample, while Hindus and, especially, the Muslims are under-represented.¹⁵

TABLE 5.10
RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION OF INDIAN TEACHERS BY SEX
OF RESPONDENTS

SEX Religion	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	N	%
Sikhs	27	48.2	4	26.7	31	43.7
Hindus	17	30.3	6	40.0	23	32.4
Christians	11	19.6	5	33.3	16	22.5
Muslims	1	1.8	-	-	1	1.4
TOTAL	56	99.9	15	100.0		100.0

Summary

The data presented in the chapter can be summed up by saying that the typical Indian teacher was male, 34 years old and married. He tended to have an urban rather than rural background and middle or upper social class origins. Compared to a female, a male teacher was older, was more

¹⁵The percentages of major religious groups in the total population of India in 1961 were: Sikhs 1.79; Hindus 83.51; Christians 2.44; and Muslims 10.69. See, India 1964, compiled by The Research and Reference Division; Ministry of Information & Broadcasting, Govt. of India (Faridabad: The Government of India Press, 1964), Table 13, p. 18.

likely to be from middle rather than from upper social class and to be socially mobile. A larger proportion of female teachers than male teachers had urban background. Moreover, the educational level of the parents of females tended to be higher than that for the parents of males. Majority of the respondents had no inter-cultural experience prior to coming to Canada. A substantial proportion of respondents, 40 per cent of both males and females, had lived or worked at least for one year or more in some foreign country before migrating to Alberta. Roughly three out of every five teachers came from the Indian province of Punjab alone. The other approximately 40 per cent came from eight different provinces or territories. With regard to religion, there was strong plurality of Sikhs (43.7 per cent), but also there were Hindus (32.4 per cent), and Christians (22.5 per cent) and Muslims (1.4 per cent).

Comparisons for sex and age composition and marital status, between the respondents and the Alberta teaching force showed that whereas the Indian teachers were predominantly male, the Alberta teachers tended to be predominantly female. The Indian teachers as a group were younger than the Alberta teaching force, the females in the Alberta teaching force being considerably older than other subgroups. The proportion of the married among Indian teachers was higher than that among the Alberta teaching force.

This chapter has dealt with the background characteristics of the respondents. The job is only half done. The

next chapter will describe and analyze the professional characters of the group and thus complete the description of essential characteristics of the Indian teachers.

CHAPTER VI

PROFESSIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TEACHERS

This chapter will report on the professional characteristics of the respondents in two separate sections. The first section will deal with characteristics pertaining to the Alberta situation as of June, 1965. The second section will pertain to professional characteristics relevant to the situation in India or elsewhere--places where respondents were teaching just prior to leaving for Canada. The characteristics included in each section are given at the beginning of the section relevant to them.

I

The characteristics of the Indian teachers that this section will present and describe pertain to the Alberta situation as of June, 1965. They are: (1) years of teacher education for which paid, (2) highest teaching certificate, (3) teaching experience, (4) salary, (5) teaching position, (6) grade level taught, (7) school subjects taught if junior or senior high school teacher, (8) size of school at which teaching, and (9), school level at which teaching.

Comparisons between the respondents and the Alberta teaching force will be made for all but one characteristic just listed.¹ The comparisons for major teaching subjects

¹Information on the Alberta teaching force used in this chapter for the purpose of comparisons between the Indian teachers and Alberta Teachers has been taken from M. T. Sillito & D. B. Black, The Alberta Teaching Force, September, 1964 (Edmonton: The Alberta Teachers' Association, 1965). This source of infor-

are not possible because of the unavailability of data in this respect.

Years of Teacher Education

In the province of Alberta teacher education is classified by years of academic and professional preparation beyond senior matriculation. The University of Alberta, Edmonton, until recently issued statements of "Years of Training for Salary Purposes."² Most school boards in Alberta depend on these evaluations for placing their teachers on the salary scales. Years of academic and professional preparation reported here are the same as in statements issued in this respect by the University of Alberta, Edmonton.

The majority of the respondents in the present sample had four or more years of education. As seen in Table 6.1, two-thirds of the Indian teachers had the equivalent of four or more years of teacher education and one-third had less than four years.³ Approximately two out of every five (43.7

mation will be footnoted as A.T.F., 1964 in the Tables in the present chapter. Unless indicated otherwise, all information on the Alberta teaching force, therefore, should be considered as taken from the source mentioned above.

²The University of Alberta has decided to discontinue this service beginning November, 1966. The issue as to which body or organization should be entitled or called upon to assume this responsibility is being considered by the Minister of Education of Alberta.

³All data on years of teacher education for teachers from India is reported as years and decimal fractions of years, so that the data on "Years of Education" for them were reported in intervals by years. For example, "three years" included all respondents whose teacher preparation ranged from 3.0 to 3.9 years. For the Alberta teaching force 1964-65, however, teachers included in the three year category could have teacher education ranging from 2.5 to 3.4 years. This is so because for the Alberta teaching force 1964-65, the data were reported in

per cent) of the teachers from India had six or more years of teacher preparation. At the other end of the scale 7 per cent of the respondents had less than three years of university training. Among the Indian teachers 5.6 per cent had the amount of teacher education which would not qualify them for entering the teaching profession in Alberta if they applied for certification at the time when the survey was conducted.⁴

The analysis of data on teacher training in terms of sex indicates that male respondents tended to have a much higher preparation than female respondents. Firstly, as seen in Table 6.1, exactly three-quarters of the males had the equivalent of four years or more of teacher education whereas exactly four-fifths (80.0 per cent) of the females had less than three years of the same. Secondly, whereas more than half (53.8 per cent) of the males had teacher education equivalent to six years or more, only a very small proportion (6.7 per cent) of the females had the same amount of training. The mode (6 years for males and 3 years for the females) as well as the median (6.0 years for males and 3.4 years for the females) taken separately for each of the sub-groups, further indicate the difference in the amount of training between them

rounded years. This should be kept in mind, therefore, while comparing the teacher education of teachers from India and the Alberta teaching force in Table 6.1. Percentages shown for each group are not strictly comparable with each other.

⁴In June 1965, the time at which the present survey was conducted, the minimum requirement with regard to teacher education for entering the teaching profession in Alberta was two years. The Registrar of the Alberta Department of Education pointed out to the investigator during an interview that this requirement was first made effective in 1962.

Comparison of the teacher education of the teachers from India with that of the Alberta teaching force for the same school year reveals that there was a considerable difference in training between the Indian teachers (with 5.3 years median training) and the Alberta teaching force (with 2.9 years median training) especially when sex differences are ignored. However, when sex variable is introduced, the data reveal that the difference is not, in fact, quite that large. The difference in median value of teacher preparation which, without regard to the sex variable, was approximately 2.5 years, narrows down considerably when that variable is introduced.

Another interesting fact comes to attention when the proportions of males and females, having four or more years of training, in the two groups are computed. Compared to the three-quarters of all males in the present sample with four or more years of training, two-thirds of the males in the Alberta teaching force have that training. With regard to the females, however, notwithstanding the larger median training for females in the present sample, the proportion of those with four or more years of training among them (20.1 per cent) is slightly smaller than that of the females in the Alberta teaching force. Finally, the bi-modal nature of the distribution for the present sample stands in contrast to the uni-modal nature of the distribution for the Alberta teaching force.

Highest Teaching Certificate

Table 6.2 presents distribution of the Alberta teaching certificates among the respondents and among the Alberta teaching

TABLE 6.2

COMPARISON OF HIGHEST TEACHING CERTIFICATES HELD BY RESPONDENTS AND THE ALBERTA TEACHING
FORCE BY SEX OF TEACHER

Teachers from India June, 1965										Alberta Teaching Force ^a Sept., 1964									
Teaching Certificate	SEX		MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL		N	%		MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL		f	%
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
Professional	38	67.9	4	26.7	42	59.2	3,386	63.47		2,063	21.93	5,449	36.96						
Standard	13	23.2	9	60.0	22	31.0	959	17.98		2,644	28.10	3,603	24.44						
Junior Elementary	5	8.9	-	-	5	7.0	787	14.75		3,871	41.14	4,658	31.60						
Second Class	-	-	2	13.3	2	2.8	25	0.47		353	3.75	378	2.56						
Letter of Authority	-	-	-	-	-	-	176	3.30		476	5.06	652	4.42						
Not Reported	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	0.04		1	0.01	3	0.02						
TOTAL	56	100.0	15	100.0	71	100.0	5,335	100.01		9,408	99.99	14,743	100.00						

^aA.T.F., 1964, Tables 4.7 and 4.9, pp. 20-21.

force.⁵ As for 1964, there were only three being issued: Professional, Standard Secondary, and Standard Elementary. Other certificates, however, have been issued to Alberta teachers in former years and may be issued to immigrant teachers.⁶ The Professional certificate requires three years of university preparation beyond senior matriculation, while Standard Secondary and Standard Elementary each requires two years.

⁵The Alberta teaching certificates are classified into several categories depending upon years of University training. The classification presented in this footnote was taken from M. T. Sillito & D. B. Black, op. cit., Table 4.7, p. 20.

Classification of Certificates

Category	Certificate Included	Approximate Preparation
Professional	Professional Academic High School	Three or more years beyond Grade XII
Standard	Standard Secondary Standard Elementary Senior Elementary and Intermediate Junior High School	Two years beyond Grade XII
Junior Elementary	Junior Elementary First Class Elementary and Intermediate	One year beyond Grade XII
Second Class	Second Class	One year beyond Grade XII
Letter of Authority	Letter of Authority	Variable - The majority of such certificate holders have less than one year.

⁶Ibid., p. 14.

The data show that 59.2 per cent of the respondents reported having Professional Certificates. Roughly two-thirds (67.9 per cent) of the males and one-quarter (26.7 per cent) of the females held that certificate. Thirty-one per cent of the sample reported having Standard Secondary or Elementary certificates. The remainder had either Junior Elementary or Second Class certificates. Whereas the majority of the males (67.9 per cent) in the sample had Professional certificates, the majority of females had a Standard certificate. In view of the differential in the teacher preparation between males and females (see Table 6.1), the difference in certificates was expected between the respondents of each sex. Male teachers are better prepared than female teachers, both training and certification wise.

The comparison of data on certification and on years of education, however, reveal a situation which appears to be contrary to what one might expect. Ninety-three per cent of the respondents reported having three years or more university training (Table 6.1)--training required to qualify for a Professional certificate--but only 59.2 per cent actually reported having it (Table 6.2).⁷

⁷This discrepancy between certification and years of training seems to be too large to be explained as a chance happening or an error attributable to office routine. Could it be that the Department of Education of Alberta has been using extra caution in issuing foreign teachers, especially those in the present sample, Professional Certificates without their having long enough experience of teaching in Alberta? Holding of a Professional Certificate is necessary for a teacher to teach Grade XII courses. Since holding one of the other certificates does not effect the salary a teacher receives, the use of caution in issuing this certificate may be a quite legitimate (but not necessarily effective) way of regulating the selection of Grade XII teachers, without being unfair to the teachers who have recently immigrated to Alberta.

Comparison of certificates held by Indian teachers and the Alberta teaching force indicates that whereas 90.2 per cent of respondents in the present sample held either Professional or Standard certificates, only 61.4 per cent of the Alberta teaching force did so. However, the proportions of males and females in each group holding Professional certificates are not much different (see Table 6.2).

Another noticeable feature of this comparison is the fact that a very small number of respondents in the present sample (7 per cent) as opposed to that of the Alberta teaching force (31.6 per cent) held Junior Elementary certificates. Only about 10 per cent of the respondents in the present sample held Junior Elementary or Second Class certificates, while in the Alberta teaching force, approximately one-third of the teachers did so, the disproportionately large bulk of them being females.

Teaching Experience

The respondents in the present study, both males and females have had fairly long teaching experience. As seen in Table 6.3, male respondents had been somewhat longer in the teaching profession (median : 10.9 years) than the female respondents (median : 9.1 years). Roughly, 86 per cent of the males and 58 per cent of the females reported six or more years of teaching experience. There were a few "oldtimers" among both sexes who had been in the profession for more than sixteen years; they represented about the same proportion (20 per cent) of the males and females. There were none in the sample who had started teaching for the first time during the school year 1964-65 in

TABLE 6.3

COMPARISON OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF RESPONDENTS AND THE ALBERTA TEACHING FORCE BY SEX
OF RESPONDENTS

SEX Teaching Experience	Teachers from India June, 1965						Alberta Teaching Force Sept., 1964 ^a											
	MALE			FEMALE			TOTAL			MALE			FEMALE			TOTAL		
	f	%		f	%		N	%		f	%		f	%		N	%	
One Year or Less	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	959	18.0		1,211	12.9		2,170	14.7	
Two Years	-	-	2	13.3		2	2.8			449	8.4		587	6.2		1,036	7.0	
Three Years	4	7.1	1	6.7		5	7.0			375	7.0		539	5.7		914	6.2	
Four Years	2	3.6	1	6.7		3	4.2			267	5.0		468	5.0		735	5.0	
Five Years	2	3.6	1	6.7		3	4.2			244	4.6		438	4.7		692	4.6	
Six to Fourteen																		
Six to Fifteen	37	66.1	7	46.7		44	62.0			1,438	26.9		2,955	31.4		4,393	29.8	
15 or Over																		
16 or Over	11	19.7	3	20.0		14	19.8			1,590	29.8		3,199	34.0		4,789	32.5	
No Reply	-	-	-	-		-	-			13	.2		11	0.01		24	0.2	
TOTAL	56	100.1	15	100.1		71	100.0			5,335	99.9		9,408	99.9		14,743	100.0	
Median	10.9		9.1			10.6				7.8			10.4			9.4		

^aA.T.F., 1964, Table 5.2, p. 26.

which the present survey was conducted.⁸

When compared with the Alberta teaching force, the Indian teachers, as a group tended to have somewhat longer teaching experience; the median teaching experience was 10.6 years for the present sample and 9.4 years for the Alberta teaching force. While approximately 82 per cent of the respondents in the present study reported six years or~~e~~ more of teaching experience, only about 52 per cent did so in the Alberta teaching force. The classification of data by sex, however, reveals that the median (10.4) for the females in the Alberta teaching force was higher than that (9.1) for the female respondents in the present study. Among other things, two factors seem to account for the above-mentioned differences: (1) different sex and age composition of the present sample and the Alberta teaching force, and (2) the entry every year, of a considerable number of teachers who start teaching for the first time, into the Alberta teaching force. From this comparison, the single highly interesting fact that emerges, is that the males in each group show a considerable difference in teaching experience, while having exactly the same median age of 34.0 years, as shown in Table 5.1 in the preceding chapter. The median teaching experience for males among Indian and Alberta teachers (Table 6.1) is 10.9 and 7.8 respectively.

⁸There were three respondents, however, who started teaching for the first time after coming to Canada.

Salary

The salary of teachers in Alberta is determined primarily by two factors: (1) teacher education evaluated in terms of years of university training, and (2) years of teaching experience. As has been indicated in the preceding part of this chapter, the respondents in this study, in comparison with the Alberta teaching force, happen to be placed toward the upper-half of the top with respect to both these factors. As might be expected, the data on salaries of the respondents suggest (Table 6.4), the average salary of Indian teachers as a group were above that of the Alberta teaching force. The median salary for Indian teachers was \$8,054 for the group as a whole, \$8,258 for the males and \$5,812 for the females. For the Alberta teaching force, 1964-65--the same school year as of the present survey--the above figures were \$5,727, \$6,644 and \$5,000 respectively.⁹

The range of the salary distributions for the two groups being compared also deserves notice. As shown in Table 6.4 the range of salary distribution for the present sample is narrower than that for the Alberta teaching force as a whole. But for a solitary case, all the respondents in the present sample fall within the \$4,000 - \$9,999 salary range. In the

⁹The information on the distributuion of salaries of Alberta teaching force, 1964-65 was secured from the information collected and punched on IBM Cards by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics of Canada. This information is collected by the D.B.S. every year in September. Duplicate IBM cards on which this information is punched are then made available to the Alberta Teachers' Association.

TABLE 6.4

COMPARISON OF GROSS ANNUAL SALARY RECEIVED BY RESPONDENTS AND THE ALBERTA TEACHING FORCE
BY SEX OF TEACHER

Salary	SEX	Teachers from India, June 1965				Alberta Teaching Force, Sept., 1964			
		MALE		FEMALE		MALE		FEMALE	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
TOTAL									
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Less Than \$3,000		-	-	-	-	2	.04	6	.06
3,000 - 3,999		-	-	-	-	320	6.00	1,510	16.1
4,000 - 4,999		2	3.6	1	6.7	710	13.30	3,194	33.9
5,000 - 5,999		1	1.8	8	53.3	1,120	21.0	2,496	26.5
6,000 - 6,999		12	21.4	4	26.7	801	15.0	963	10.2
7,000 - 7,999		6	10.7	-	-	548	10.3	392	4.2
8,000 - 8,999		26	46.5	2	13.3	738	13.8	535	5.-
9,000 - 9,999		8	14.3	-	-	620	11.6	230	2.4
10,000-10,999		1	1.4	-	-	285	5.3	65	0.7
11,000-11,999		-	-	-	-	111	2.1	13	0.10
12,000-12,999		-	-	-	-	59	1.1	3	.03
13,000-13,999		-	-	-	-	13	0.2	-	-
14,000-14,999		-	-	-	-	5	0.1	1	.01
15,000-15,999		-	-	-	-	1	.02	-	-
16,000 & Over		-	-	-	-	2	.04	-	-
No Response		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL		56	99.7	15	100.0	5,335	99.90	9,408	99.90
Median \$8,258.5						6,644		5,000	
				8,054				5,727	
								14,743	100.0

Alberta teaching force, on the other hand, roughly 12.5 per cent fell below, and 4 per cent above this range. In general, the females in both groups tended to be concentrated toward the lower end of the distribution while the males tended to concentrate toward the middle point, or toward the upper end of it. Although sex of a teacher has nothing to do directly with the amount of salary to which he is entitled, it seems to be a single most important factor associated with differences in the median salaries of males and females in both the groups. As seen in Table 6.1, median teacher education of females among Indian as well as Alberta teachers is noticeably lower than that of males, and the lower the teacher education, the lower the salaries.

Teaching Position

As seen in Table 6.5, the respondents in this study tend to be primarily regular classroom teachers. Close to 83 per cent of the respondents reported working as regular class-room teachers. Roughly four out of every five males (78.6 per cent) and all the females were in that position. The data also indicate that as many as 21.5 per cent of the males were in some administrative positions as principals or vice-principals. It is to be noticed that none of the female respondents held any administrative positions whatever.

In the Alberta teaching force, roughly 14 per cent of the teachers in 1964-65 were holding administrative positions of one sort or another, while the rest of them were regular class-room teachers. There were relatively few females (5.68

TABLE 6.5

COMPARISON OF TEACHING POSITION HELD BY RESPONDENTS AND THE ALBERTA TEACHING FORCE BY SEX OF TEACHER

SEX Teaching More Than Half-Time	Teachers from India, June, 1965				Alberta Teaching Force, Sept. 1964 ^a			
	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL		MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	N	%	f	%
Teaching More Than Half-Time Teachers	44	78.6	15	100.0	59	83.1	-	94.32
Principals	3	5.4	-	-	3	4.2	-	2.25
Vice-Principals	6	10.7	-	-	6	8.5	-	2.53
Supervision, Teaching Less Than Half-Time Principals	2	3.6	-	-	2	2.8	-	0.24
Vice-Principals	1	1.8	-	-	1	1.4	-	0.03
Supervisors ^b	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.50
Pupil Personnel Services	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.12
TOTAL	56	100.1	15	100.0	71	100.0	-	100.00

^aA.T.F., 1964, Table 6.1, p. 31.

^bIncludes department heads, supervisors of special subjects, teacher consultants, supervisors, and superintendents who are teaching less than half-time.

per cent) in administration, leaving the field open for a large proportion of males (29.5 per cent). The comparison of the distribution of positions between Indian teachers and the Alberta teaching force indicates that in both groups it was the males who tended to hold the bulk of the administrative positions. Moreover, taking the two groups as wholes, the analysis of data indicates that a slightly larger proportion of Indian teachers (16.9 per cent) than that of Alberta teachers (14.33 per cent) held administrative jobs. The proportion of Indian teachers who were principals is smaller than the proportion of principals in the Alberta teachers. The proportion of vice-principals in the two groups, however, compares more favorably.

In general, the data on distribution of teaching positions suggest that if the kind of community in which the school is situated and the kind and size of school are ignored, the respondents of the present study were working in teaching positions very similar to those available to the Alberta teaching force.

Grade-level of Teaching

The respondents were asked, if on the basis of their teaching duties they considered themselves, primarily as Elementary, Junior-High, or Senior-High school teachers. As seen in Table 6.6, the majority (69.0 per cent) of the respondents reported as being Senior-High school teachers. Approximately 21 and 10 per cent reported as being Elementary and Junior-High school teachers respectively. Roughly 80 per

TABLE 6.6

COMPARISON OF GRADE LEVEL OF TEACHING OF RESPONDENTS AND THE ALBERTA TEACHING FORCE BY SEX OF TEACHER

Sex	Teachers from India June, 1954				Alberta Teaching Force, Sept., 1964 ^a							
	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL		MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	N	%	f	%	f	%	N	%
Grade Level												
Elementary	6	10.7	9	60.0	15	21.1	997	18.69	6,459	68.65	7,456	50.87
Elementary- Secondary												
Junior-High	5	8.9	2	13.3	7	9.9	1,865	34.96	1,609	17.10	3,474	23.56
Secondary												
Senior-High	45	80.4	4	26.7	49	69.0	2,473	46.35	1,340	14.24	3,813	25.86
TOTAL	56	100.0	15	100.0	71	100.0	5,335	100.00	9,408	99.99	14,743	99.99

^aA.T.F., 1964, Table 6.3, p.32.

cent of the males designated themselves as Senior-High school teachers. In contrast, 60 per cent of the females reported being Elementary school teachers. There were some males (10.7 per cent) who classified themselves as Elementary teachers and some females (26.7 per cent) who classified themselves as Senior-High school teachers. There were a few males and females teaching in the Junior-High school, both together forming approximately 10 per cent of the respondents.

As compared to the Alberta teaching force, a disproportionately large percentage of Indian teachers were teaching in the Senior High school. Roughly 26 per cent of the Alberta teaching force and 80.⁷⁶⁹ per cent of the Indian teachers were teaching at this grade-level. Indian teachers were under-represented at the Junior-High grade-level, the males being more so than the females. At the Elementary grade-level, again, the respondents in this study were under-represented when compared with Alberta teachers. Roughly 21 per cent of the Indian teachers, as compared to 51 per cent of the Alberta teachers, were Elementary teachers. The differences by sex, in proportion of teachers working at this grade-level, however, are not so great. Altogether, 31 per cent of the respondents were teaching at Elementary and Junior-Highschool grade-levels combined, and 69 per cent at the Senior-High. In Alberta teaching force, approximately, seventy-four per cent were teaching at Elementary and Junior-High grade-levels combined, and only about 26 per cent at the Senior-High.

School Level

Table 6.7 presents data on the types of schools where the respondents were teaching. Different communities in Alberta may have one, two or more schools in each of them for educating their children. Various factors, such as community size, religion, number of children going to school, financial considerations such as operating cost, bussing arrangements, and availability of staff etc., influence the decisions of the authorities such as school boards as to what type of school(s) with respect to grade levels are most appropriate for a community. The general trend seems to be for the cities and large towns to have schools separately provided for different levels. For example, Elementary, Junior-High, and Senior-High schools are run as separate units with their own staff, including local administration, buildings and bussing arrangements etc. On the other hand, in smaller communities there has been a trend to have all grades from I-XII provided in one school. Between these two extremes there are quite a few variations, such as Elementary-Junior-High schools (Grades I-IX), or Junior-Senior-High schools (Grades VII-XII).

Since the majority of the respondents are Senior-High or Secondary school teachers, they were teaching predominantly in types of schools which had Senior-High grades in them in one form or another. Roughly half of them, fewer females (40 per cent) than males (53.6 per cent) were teaching in Elementary-Junior-Senior High schools.¹⁰

¹⁰Elementary-Junior-Senior High schools are located, generally, in relatively small communities and in relatively less developed areas of the province. The same is likely to be true of the Elemenaary-Junior High schools.

TABLE 6.7

COMPARISON OF SCHOOL LEVEL OF TEACHING OF RESPONDENTS AND THE ALBERTA TEACHING FORCE BY SEX OF TEACHER

SEX	Teachers from India, June, 1965				Alberta Teaching Force, Sept., 196 ^a			
	MALE		FEMALE		MALE		FEMALE	
School Level	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Primary	-	-	-	-	12	0.22	139	1.48
Elementary	-	-	-	-	857	16.06	3,525	37.47
Elem. -Jr. High	7	12.5	5	33.3	1,037	19.44	2,062	21.92
Elem.-Jr.-Sr. High	30	53.6	6	40.0	1,272	23.84	2,146	22.81
Junior High	-	-	-	-	364	6.82	334	3.55
Jr.-Senior High	10	17.9	3	20.0	562	9.86	404	4.29
Senior High	9	16.1	1	6.7	1,003	18.80	583	6.20
Secondary ^b	-	-	-	-	132	2.47	104	1.10
Non-educational Instruction	-	-	-	-	21	0.39	9	0.10
Not Applicable	-	-	-	-	111	2.08	102	1.08
TOTAL	56	100.1	15	100.0	71	100.0	5,408	100.00
							14,743	99.98

^a"Survey of Teacher Opinion", ATA Magazine (October, 1964), Vol. 45:3, pp. 55-56.
Distribution of Alberta teaching force by school size and sex is not available.

^bThe term is left undefined in ibid., from where these data were taken.

The remainder were teaching, in roughly equal proportions, in Elementary-Junior High schools (16.9 per cent), Junior-Senior High schools (18.3 per cent) and Senior High Schools (18.3 per cent), and Senior High schools (14.1 per cent). None were teaching in exclusively Primary/Elementary or Junior High schools.

On the other hand, roughly one-third of the Alberta teaching force, Table 6.7, were teaching in the Primary/Elementary level schools, and approximately one-quarter were teaching in schools having all grades. The two types of schools combined, the Elementary-Junior High and the Elementary-Junior-Senior High, absorbed 67.6 per cent of the Indian teachers and only 44.2 per cent of the Alberta teachers.

School Size

As seen in Table 6.8, majority of the respondents (52 per cent) were teaching in schools with fourteen or fewer full-time teachers including the principal. In fact, roughly 30 per cent of the respondents were working in schools having nine or fewer full-time teachers. In the Alberta teaching force, less than one-fifth (17.7 per cent) were teaching in schools with nine or fewer full-time teachers. Altogether, compared to 52 per cent of the Indian teachers, only 41.1 per cent of the Alberta teachers in 1964-65 were teaching in schools with fourteen or fewer full-time teachers.

¹⁰Elementary-Junior-Senior High schools are located, generally, in relatively small communities and in relatively less developed areas of the Province. The same is likely to be true of the Elementary-Junior High Schools.

TABLE 6.8

COMPARISON OF SCHOOLS BY SIZE IN WHICH RESPONDENTS AND THE ALBERTA TEACHING FORCE WERE TEACHING - BY NUMBER OF FULL-TIME TEACHERS AND SEX OF TEACHER

SEX No. of Teachers	Teachers from India, June, 1965				Alberta Teaching Force, Sept. 1964 ^a			
	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	N	%	N	%
1 - 4	2	3.6	2	13.3	4	5.6	539	5.0
5 - 9	16	28.6	1	6.7	17	23.9	1,377	12.7
10 - 14	11	19.6	5	33.3	16	22.5	2,543	23.4
15 - 19	7	12.5	3	20.0	10	14.1	1,773	16.3
20 - 24	14	25.0	1	6.7	15	21.1	1,599	14.7
25 - 34	3	5.4	-	-	3	4.2	1,143	10.5
35 - 44	1	1.8	-	-	1	1.4	268	2.5
45 or more	2	3.6	3	20.0	5	7.0	804	8.4
Not Reported	-	-	-	-	-	-	810	7.5
TOTAL	56	100.1	15	100.0	71	99.8	10,856	100.0

^aSource: "Survey of Teacher Opinion", ATA Magazine (October, 1964), Vol. 45, p. 56.

The proportion of the respondents in this study, (39.4 per cent), however, and that of the Alberta teachers (41.5 per cent) who were teaching in schools with not fewer than fifteen and not more than thirty-four full-time teachers, compares well. Similarly, the proportion of teachers in each group, teaching in schools having more than thirty-four teachers, is not very different from each other.

The comparison by school size and sex, for the respondents and the Alberta teaching force is not possible at the present time.¹¹ As far as the males and females in the Indian teachers are concerned, the males had a little more pronounced tendency than the females to be teaching in schools of small size. Roughly one-third of the males (32.2 per cent) and one-fifth of the females (20 per cent) were teaching in schools with less than ten full-time teachers.

Major Subjects Taught

Table 6.9 presents a summary of major subjects, the respondents were responsible for teaching at the time of the survey. Only Junior- and Senior-High school teachers were asked to answer the question on teaching specialty. Altogether, fifty-six respondents were Junior- or Senior-High school teachers and all of them provided the requested information.

¹¹Information on distribution of Alberta teachers by school size and sex of teachers is neither reported anywhere nor available in any other form.

The data in Table 6.9 reveal that the respondents could be grouped into three main categories: (1) those teaching Language and Social Studies, (2) those teaching both Science and Mathematics subjects or any one of the two, and (3) those called upon to teach any or all of the major school subjects.

TABLE 6.9

DISTRIBUTION OF MAJOR SUBJECTS TAUGHT BY INDIAN TEACHERS TEACHING IN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, BY SEX OF RESPONDENT (JUNE, 1965)

SEX	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	N	%
Teaching Subjects						
Language - Social Studies	23	47.0	1	14.3	24	42.8
Science - Mathematics	10	20.4	1	14.3	11	19.8
Science only	3	6.1	1	14.3	4	7.1
Mathematics only	4	8.2	-	-	4	7.1
Language - Social Studies - Science - Mathematics	6	12.2	1	14.3	7	12.5
Physical Education & other subjects	2	4.0	2	28.5	4	7.1
Commercial subjects	1	2.0	1	14.3	2	3.6
TOTAL	49	99.9	7	100.0	56	100.0

Roughly 43 per cent of the respondents were in the first category, 34 per cent in the second, and 19.6 per cent in the third. Two respondents (3.6 per cent) were teaching commercial subjects only. If the respondents teaching "Language-Social

Studies" and "Language - Social Studies, Science - Mathematics" are grouped together, an interesting fact emerges. Roughly 55 per cent of the respondents in addition to teaching other subjects were also teaching Language in Junior and Senior High schools.¹² Regrouping these respondents again, who teach Sciences or Mathematics, with or without any other subject combinations, one finds that 46.5 per cent of the respondents were teaching Science - Mathematics subjects. Larger proportions of males (93.9 per cent) were involved in the teaching of Language-Social Studies and Science - Mathematics subjects than that of the females (57.2 per cent).

II

In this section will be reported some of the professional characteristics of the respondents pertaining to the period just prior to their migration to Canada. These characteristics are: (1) teaching experience just prior to coming to Canada, (2) teaching position, (3) level of school or institution where taught in India or elsewhere, (4) countries other than India, where taught, (5) total length of stay outside India in the capacity of a teacher, and (6) occupational background, if any, before joining teaching profession.

¹²Teaching of Language as a school subject is usually looked upon by most teachers as a difficult task, because in addition to skills required in teaching it, the belief is that it requires much extra time and work in checking the written work of students. When teachers from India, who as a rule learned English as a second language and were trained to teach it as such are called upon to teach Language in Alberta schools, one wonders if this is so because they are most suited to do so by their professional training and background, or because of the shortage of teachers of Language, especially in smaller schools.

Teaching Experience Just Prior to Coming to Canada

The respondents as a group had a fairly long experience (median 8.1 years) before coming to Canada. As seen in Table 6.10, 63.4 per cent of respondents had six or more years of teaching experience just prior to leaving for Canada. Approximately two-thirds of the males (66.1 per cent) and half of the females (53.3 per cent) among Indian teachers had that length of teaching experience. Although the proportion of those with one year or less of teaching experience was small (9.8 per cent), interestingly enough there were a few respondents (4.2 per cent) who had done no teaching, whatever, before migrating to Canada.

TABLE 6.10

TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF TEACHERS FROM INDIA JUST PRIOR TO
COMING TO CANADA
YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND SEX

SEX Experience	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	N	%
No experience	2	3.6	1	6.7	3	4.2
One Year	3	5.4	1	6.7	4	5.6
Two years	4	7.1	2	13.3	6	8.5
Three years	2	3.6	1	6.7	3	4.2
Four years	1	1.8	1	6.7	2	2.8
Five years	7	12.5	1	6.7	8	11.3
Six to fifteen	31	55.4	6	40.0	37	52.1
Sixteen or over	6	10.7	2	13.3	8	11.3
Not Reported	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	56	100.1	15	100.1	71	100.0
Median	8.4	6.3		8.1		

Between the sexes, the difference in the length of teaching experience is considerable, the median for males and females being 8.4 and 6.3 respectively.

Teaching Position

Table 6.11 indicates that respondents in this study were working in a wide array of teaching positions before coming to Canada. The majority of them (53.5 per cent) however, were regular classroom teachers, a somewhat larger proportion of females (60 per cent) than males (51.8 per cent) being in that position. Data also indicate that approximately 28 per cent of the respondents had held administrative or supervisory positions and another 8.5 per cent had had teaching positions in teacher training or other colleges. Thus roughly two-fifths

TABLE 6.11

TEACHING POSITIONS HELD BY TEACHERS FROM INDIA JUST PRIOR TO
COMING TO CANADA BY SEX OF RESPONDENT

Teaching Position	SEX		MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	N	%
Regular Classroom Teacher	29	51.8	9	60.0	38	53.5		
Department/ Subject Head	4	7.1	1	6.7	5	7.0		
Principal/ Headmaster	8	14.3	2	13.3	10	14.1		
Vice Principal	5	8.9	-	-	5	7.0		
Lecturer in Arts/ Science or Teachers Training College	5	8.9	1	6.7	6	8.5		
Other	2	3.6	-	-	2	2.8		
Not in Teaching Force	2	3.6	1	6.7	3	4.2		
Not Reported	1	1.8	1	6.7	2	2.8		
TOTAL	56	100.0	15	100.1	71	99.9		

(39.2 per cent) of the respondents came from a group of administrators and college teachers. Why is it that so many respondents, their fairly long experience in teaching positions notwithstanding, have decided to migrate to Canada? Could it be that after spending long enough time in the teaching profession in India they perceived their path to further upward social mobility blocked and thus sought a new channel to mobility in their migration to Canada? Unfortunately, the present data do not seem sufficiently specific to answer this question.

Level of School or Institution at Which Taught

Table 6.12 gives the distribution of respondents with regard to the level of school or institution at which they were teaching prior to leaving for Canada. As seen from the data, only a small proportion of the respondents (19.7 per cent) were working in Elementary or Junior-High schools. The remaining, roughly four-fifths (80.3 per cent) of the Indian teachers were teaching in Senior-High schools or in colleges. It is noticeable that even among the females, only a small proportion (20 per cent) were teaching in the Elementary schools. Another fact quite evident from the data is that the proportion of the male respondents teaching at the Senior-High school or college level was roughly twice that of the females. This pattern is consistent with the relatively low teacher preparation of the females as opposed to that of the males (Table 6.1).

TABLE 6.12

LEVEL OF SCHOOL/INSTITUTION AT WHICH TAUGHT IN INDIA OR ELSE-
WHERE JUST PRIOR TO COMING TO CANADA BY SEX OF RESPONDENT

SEX	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
Level of School/Institution	f	%	f	%	N	%
Elementary School	2	3.6	3	20.0	5	7.0
Junior High/ Middle School	6	10.7	3	20.0	9	12.7
Senior High/Higher Secondary School	37	66.1	5	33.3	42	59.1
Arts/Science College	2	3.6	1	6.7	3	4.2
Teacher Training College	6	10.7	-	-	6	8.5
Elementary Teachers Training Institute	-	-	1	6.7	1	1.4
Others	1	1.8	-	-	1	1.4
Not in Teaching Force	2	3.6	1	6.7	2	2.8
Not Reported	-	-	1	6.7	2	2.8
TOTAL	56	100.1	15	100.1	71	99.9

Foreign Countries Where Taught

A fairly large number of respondents have had some chance of teaching in countries other than India at some stage in their teaching careers before migrating to Canada. As seen in Table 6.13, approximately one-quarter of the Indian teachers had taught at least in one other country. Four males and five females, forming approximately 13 per cent of the sample, had taught in two foreign countries.¹³ Approximately 36 per cent of

¹³The replies to the question asking if the respondents had taught in more than one foreign country are not tabulated for reasons of economy.

TABLE 6.13

FOREIGN COUNTRIES WHERE TAUGHT BEFORE COMING TO CANADA BY
SEX OF RESPONDENT

SEX	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
Foreign Country	f	%	f	%	N	%
United Kingdom	4	7.1	-	-	4	5.6
Ethiopia	11	19.6	4	26.7	15	21.1
East Africa excluding Ethiopia	3	5.6	1	6.7	4	5.6
Asia excluding India	1	1.8	1	6.7	2	2.8
U. S. A.	1	1.8	-	-	1	1.4
West Indies	-	-	-	-	-	-
Others	-	-	-	-	-	-
None	36	64.3	9	60.0	45	63.4
	56	100.2	15	100.1	71	99.9

the males and 40 per cent of the females had taught in some foreign country. In Ethiopia alone, fifteen respondents (21.1 per cent) had done so, the single largest group having taught in any one country. United Kingdom, some countries of East Africa excluding Ethiopia, and U. S. A., are some other places where some respondents had taught.

Total Length of Stay in Foreign Countries as Teacher

The length of stay of most of the respondents who taught in foreign countries varied between one to five years (Table 6.14). There were some (9.9 per cent) however, who had taught in a foreign land for a period extending more than five years. The median stay for those who taught in foreign countries was

3.75 for the group as a whole, 3.4 for the males and 4.0 for the females. It is interesting to find that not only more females taught in foreign countries but that they also stayed somewhat longer on these jobs.

TABLE 6.14

TOTAL LENGTH OF STAY OF INDIAN TEACHERS IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES
AS TEACHERS BY SEX OF RESPONDENT

SEX Length of Stay	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	N	%
Less than one Year	1	1.8	-	-	1	1.4
1 - 3 Years	8	14.3	2	13.3	10	14.1
3 - 5 Years	7	12.5	1	6.7	8	11.3
More than 5 Years	4	7.1	3	20.0	7	9.9
None	36	64.3	9	60.0	45	63.4
TOTAL	56	100.0	15	100.0	71	100.1
Median	3.4		4.0		3.75	

Occupational Background Before Joining Teaching Profession

Teaching was the first occupation for a large majority of respondents in this study. As seen in Table 6.15, roughly two-thirds of the respondents (64.8 per cent) had been in no other occupation before becoming teachers. A much larger number of male than female respondents had worked in some other capacity before joining teaching. Nearly half of the males (42.9 per cent) as opposed to one out of 15 females (6.7 per cent) had some work experience in other occupations before becoming teachers. About 10 per cent of the respondents, all males, had

worked in at least two different occupations before entering their present profession.¹⁴ Except for a very small proportion of the sample (2.9 per cent), those who had been in some other

TABLE 6.15

OCCUPATION OF RESPONDENTS BEFORE JOINING TEACHING PROFESSION - SOCIO-ECONOMIC SCALE POSITION OF OCCUPATION BY SEX OF RESPONDENT

Socio-Economic Scale Position of the Occupation	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	N	%
I. Higher Executives of Large Concerns, Proprie- tors and Major Professionals	-	-	-	-	-	-
II. Business Managers, Proprietors of Medium Sized Business, and Lesser Professionals	1	1.8	1	6.7	2	2.8
III. Administrative Person- nel, Owners of Small Businesses, Minor Pro- fessionals, and Farmers	6	10.7	-	-	6	8.5
IV. Clerical & Sales Workers, Technicians, Small Business Owners	15	26.8	-	-	15	21.1
V. Skilled Manual Employees	-	-	-	-	-	-
VI. Unskilled Employees	2	3.6	-	-	2	2.8
VII. Inadequate Information or No Response	-	-	-	-	-	-
Did Not Join any other Occupation	32	57.1	14	93.3	46	64.8
TOTAL	56	100.0	15	100.0	71	100.0

occupation(s) before becoming teachers were in occupations the social status of which was lower than that of the teaching

¹⁴Data on the second occupation of respondents was not tabulated for reasons of economy.

profession. Thus the respondents who reported other occupational background, in changing over to teaching became socially upwardly mobile. At least, 22.4 per cent of the respondents had experienced intra-generational upward mobility.

Summary

From the examination of the respondents' characteristics thus far it can be said that the typical Indian teacher had at least four years of university training, held a professional teaching certificate, and had about 10 years of teaching experience. He had no other occupation prior to becoming a teacher. In Alberta he was most likely to be teaching in a Senior High school. Furthermore, he was likely to be working in a relatively small school (with 14 or fewer full-time teachers), teaching a number of academic courses, especially language-social studies or mathematics-science, and getting approximately \$8000 annual salary.

Female respondents, in contrast with males, had appreciably less university training, had shorter teaching experience, were primarily Elementary school teachers, held no administrative positions at all, and were drawing considerably lower salaries.

Comparisons with the Alberta teaching force indicated that Indian teachers on the average had more university training and slightly longer teaching experience. Females in the Alberta teaching force, however, had approximately

the same teaching experience as the Indian teachers. The average teaching salary of the respondents was higher than that of Alberta teachers in general. The top and lower limits of the range, however, over which the salaries of each group varied were much narrower for the Indian teachers than the Alberta teaching force. Whereas respondents tended to be predominantly Senior High school teachers (69 per cent), the Alberta teaching force had only approximately 26 per cent in that position. Fifty-one per cent of the Alberta teaching force and only 21.1 per cent of the respondents were Elementary school teachers. Ten per cent of the respondents and 23 per cent of Alberta teachers were employed at the Junior High school level. Furthermore, compared to only 17.7 per cent of the Alberta teaching force teaching in schools with 9 or fewer full-time teachers, 30 per cent of Indian teachers were doing so. In general, Indian teachers compared to Alberta teachers, tended to be teaching in smaller schools.

Finally, there appears to be a noticeable discrepancy between their years of teacher education and the level at which they were certificated as teachers in Alberta. In Alberta, a professional certificate requires at least three years of teacher education beyond senior matriculation. Despite the fact that 93 per cent of the respondents had more than three years of teacher education, only 60 per cent held professional certification.

The description and analysis of the characteristics of the respondents in this and the preceding chapter has been

used to point out not only the similarities and differences between the respondents and the Alberta teaching force but also to examine the mode of integration of the Indian teachers into the educational system of Alberta. Several selected characteristics discussed in these chapters will be used in the analysis of data in Chapters VIII and IX.

The question regarding the discrepancy that has been pointed out in the preceding paragraph between the teacher education of the respondents and the kind of teaching certificates held by them relates to the broader problem of certification of foreign teachers in Alberta. This problem is examined in some detail in the next chapter.

CHAPTER VII

ENTRY OF INDIAN TEACHERS INTO THE ALBERTA SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

Under the provisions of Section 93 of the British North America Act, 1867, and appropriate statutes passed subsequently at provincial level, authority for setting teacher qualifications and controlling teacher certification rests with the ten provincial legislatures. In Alberta, as in other provinces, this responsibility is handled by the Department of Education headed by a Minister of Education.¹ As pointed out in Chapter III, Alberta receives a large number of immigrant teachers, most of them from other provinces in Canada, but some from other countries as well. To deal with the problem of certification of immigrant teachers, especially those from other countries, this Province has in effect a few special

¹In fact, the Registrar of the Department of Education handles the requests for and implements the rules and regulations regarding certification. Among other things, the Registrar is responsible for issuing the certificates of qualifications to teach, determining the eligibility of an applicant for a teaching certificate, administering the regulations governing certification of teachers, and assessing the credentials of applicant teachers from outside the Province.

Further, in Alberta, the Board of Teacher Education and Certification advises the Minister of Education and the Presidents of the universities of Alberta on matters relating to the training and certification of teachers. This board is composed of sixteen members: five each from the Department of Education and the universities of Alberta; and three each from the Alberta Teachers' Association and the Alberta School Trustees' Association. The Registrar of the Education Department functions as Secretary of this body. See, Province of Alberta, Annual Report of the Department of Education, 1965, pp. 48-52.

regulations. This chapter is devoted to a brief examination of these regulations. It also examines briefly several factors related to the recruitment of Indian teachers to schools in the Alberta School System.

The data and information presented were obtained from two sources, the Registrar of the Department of Education of Alberta through personal interview, and from the respondents' responses to questionnaire items augmented by some informal personal interviews with respondents.

Certification of Indian Teachers in Alberta

The certification of teachers from other countries, immigrating to Alberta involves two major steps. First, it covers the assessment and evaluation of the credentials of applicant teachers including their academic training with the purpose of issuing certificates of qualifications to teach. The eligibility of the applicant for a particular teaching certificate is contingent upon the assessment of his academic training in terms of years of teacher education as made by the office of the Registrar of the Department of Education.²

²The four types of certificates authorized under Order-in-Council 728 (1954) of the Government of Alberta, and issued in 1966 are: (1) The Junior E Certificate, (2) The Standard E. Certificate, (3) The Standard S Certificate, and (4) The Professional Certificate. Teachers prepared in Alberta or under other jurisdictions prior to September 1, 1962, may be issued the Junior E Certificates, provided their academic and professional qualifications are acceptable to the Minister. The Standard S Certificates are issued to persons who have completed satisfactorily the first two years of the B. Ed. Program of the University of Alberta or work assessed as equivalent to it. The Professional Certificate is issued to persons who have completed satisfactorily three years of the B. Ed. program of the University of Alberta or work assessed equivalent to it. University of Alberta, Calendar of the Faculty of Education, Edmonton, 1966-67, pp. 46-47.

After the eligibility of an applicant is established he is issued an Interim teaching certificate on his taking up residence in Alberta.

The second major step involved in the certification of teachers from other countries requires that if issued a teaching certificate, they must take two "orientation courses".³ Until the summer of 1962 there existed no uniform policy in assigning the two courses for certification purposes. A firm policy, however, was established that summer which made the successful completion of the following two courses to meet certification requirements imperative for all applicants from outside Canada⁴:

1. Ed. Adm. 461: Educational Administration.

2. Ed. CI 280 Su or Ed. CI 380: Curriculum and Instruction in the Secondary Schools (for Secondary school teachers)

OR one of: Ed. CI 306, 320, 322, 328, 330, 336, 338 (for Elementary school teachers).

Since 1964, the course assignment policy has undergone further change. A course in History of Canada (History 370) has been substituted for a course in the general area of

³All foreign teachers have to make a written commitment to take the two orientation courses as recommended by the Dean of the Faculty of Education, University of Alberta, before eligibility is granted to them.

⁴In July, 1962, the Dean of the Faculty of Education, University of Alberta, Edmonton, outlined this new policy with regard to course requirement for certification of teachers from outside Canada in a letter sent to all the Indian teachers, and perhaps to other foreign teachers as well, teaching in Alberta at that time.

Curriculum and Instruction.⁵

Some Problems in the Certification of Indian Teachers

Special problems in the certification of Indian teachers in Alberta appear to pertain to (a) evaluation of their university training obtained in India and (b) proficiency in spoken English.

The educational structures found in different provinces in India are quite different from the educational structure in Alberta. In almost all parts of India, until recently, students spent ten years in Elementary and Secondary schools before going to the university, as opposed to the 12 years of pre-university schooling in Alberta. Once admitted to the university, however, a student in India, like his counterpart in Alberta, had to spend four years to get his first university degree, but because of the difference in the number of years required for pre-university training in India and Alberta, an undergraduate degree from an Indian university has not been evaluated as equivalent to that received in Alberta. As a general rule, an undergraduate degree from an Indian university has been evaluated, by the "Evaluation Committee" of the University of Alberta, as equivalent to two years of university education.

⁵As of 1966, according to the Registrar of the Department of Education, Government of Alberta, foreign teachers seeking certification in Alberta are required to successfully complete two courses--the History of Canada (History-370) and Educational Administration (Ed. Adm. 461). This requirement, however, is not applied too rigidly. In special cases, some adjustment is allowed.

Furthermore, there are important differences regarding practices in grading students' work and ranking of degrees between Indian universities on the one hand and Alberta University on the other. College and university students in India are ranked academically according to the scores they earn in an annual examination.⁶ There are three passing ranks: first, second, and third class. The examinations in each subject for students at one university including those attending various colleges within its jurisdiction are standardized. The norms for scoring the uniform tests vary, however, from one university to another. The class ratings of degrees from different Indian universities, therefore, do not represent the same level of achievement for all Indian students.⁷

These differences among the Indian universities on the one hand and between Indian universities as a class and the University of Alberta on the other, create difficulties in the evaluation of the academic qualifications of applicants from India. The class rankings of Indian degrees further confound the problem of evaluating them for certification purposes. Until 1964, the regulations for certification in Alberta did not consider the class rankings of degrees held by Indian applicants in granting certification. Since that year,

⁶ John Useem and Ruth H. Useem, Western-Educated Man in India: A Study of Social Roles and Influence (New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1955), pp. 197-199.

⁷ Ibid.

however, a policy has been enforced in that regard.⁸ No longer are applicants from India with third-class standing throughout their university work considered for certification in this province.⁹

The problem of judging Indian university graduates on the basis of their class-ranked degrees has been recognized in the context of North American universities for some time now. On the basis of a comprehensive empirical study concluded in 1955, the Useems state

. . . that Indians in the second and third class ratings are not necessarily inferior to those who have ranked in the first class. Indeed, many below the first-class in the Indian ranks proved to be excellent students in Western schools, and after their return to India, have done as well as have many in the first class.¹⁰

On the basis of their findings, Useems recommend that instead of putting unqualified faith in the Indian records, they should be cross-checked by other evidence such as the level of the examination within a university, the university policy of distributing classes according to certain proportions, etc.¹¹

⁸This information comes from the personal interview the investigator had with the Registrar of the Department of Education of Alberta in the Summer of 1966.

⁹Applicants who had third-class standing in a part of their university work but have improved their standing to second-class or better in their subsequent work taken at university level are, however, considered eligible for consideration.

¹⁰Useem and Useem, op. cit., pp. 197-199.

¹¹Ibid.

The preceding discussion has been undertaken with the sole purpose of bringing the problem of the evaluation of Indian degrees in general, and the present policy followed in this regard for certification in this province in sharp focus. It is far from suggesting that the present policy being followed is totally inadequate. It is suggested, however, that in the light of the evidence just presented, a further study of the problem, for sound practical as well as academic reasons, is needed.¹²

The second problem relevant to the certification of Indian teachers in Alberta pertains to "language difficulties", Indian teachers come from a variety of linguistic backgrounds. Because of the noticeable differences between the speech and sound patterns of different Indian languages on the one hand and the English on the other, the Indian teachers as a rule, are likely to have some difficulty in communicating with their students and colleagues, at least during the first year in Canada. Unless an individual has had the chance of attending an English school in India or abroad during his Elementary and Secondary school years, a difference in accent, rhythm and

¹²During the investigator's interview with him, the Registrar clearly indicated his complete awareness of the complexity of the problem. It was also clear that he considered the present policy less than adequate.

It should be suggested, here, that sufficient data are now available at the University of Alberta, Edmonton, which will be quite appropriate and adequate for the study of this problem. A majority of Indian teachers teaching in Alberta in 1966 have taken at least one or two university courses. Some have taken more than two. Information regarding the standing in these courses as well as their academic records from India are at present in the University files.

sometimes idiom is inevitable in his speech. English, in India, although widely used in formal instruction at universities, research institutions and government business, is not a very widely spoken language.

Since an immigrating teacher from India is expected to go into an Alberta classroom straight away on his arrival, some regulations in certification procedures have been introduced from time to time to ensure that applicants that are granted certificates do not have serious problems in communication with their students when they arrive. Applicants from India are normally required to present satisfactory evidence of their proficiency in spoken English. The nature of information considered admissible has changed during the last few years from a letter from an educationist with English as his native tongue to a speech by the applicant recorded on tape. "Unusual idiom, inflection, and rhythm" are some of the elements in oral English of the Indian teachers which have been considered responsible for creating some difficulty in communication.¹³

Regulations, whether for certification or for some other purposes are normally legitimated on the grounds of efficiency, protection of public interest and maintenance of certain standards. In other words, they are considered

¹³These remarks are taken from the letters sent by the Office of the Registrar to all Indian applicants stating the various requirements for certification in Alberta.

functional to the system. For a sociologist, however, they are functional in more than one sense. Social systems, normally, have some functional requirements or needs, such as "boundary maintenance".¹⁴ The educational structure in Alberta, viewed as a social system, would have "boundary maintenance" as one of its several functional requirements. Complementary to their function as a mechanism for efficiency etc., the certification regulations perform a boundary maintenance function by controlling the entry of subsystems from other social systems. They are mechanisms for effective control of not only those who are in the social system today, but also those who can or cannot be potential members.

Certification Courses And Indian Teachers

All social systems employ some means of "socializing" their members to ensure their satisfactory adaptation to the system including commitment to its goals. Some of these means are formal and explicit, such as, certification courses. Others are informal and less apparent, such as, organizational and community pressures. As a part of this socialization process, Indian teachers in Alberta are required to do two courses at either of the two universities in Alberta. Data are presented here on the kinds of courses taken by the subjects of this study and their evaluation of the usefulness of these courses in the subjects' adjustment to the Alberta School System.

¹⁴See, Philip Selznick, "Foundations of the Theory of Organization", in Amitai Etzioni (ed.) Complex Organizations: A Sociological Reader, (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964), pp. 18-31.

Examination of the data in Table 7.1 reveals a considerable variation in the assignment of certification courses to the respondents in the present study. A general pattern in this respect, however, is observable. The course in Education Administration was taken by 50.7 per cent of the respondents, the courses in Educational Psychology by about one-third (32.4 per cent) and the courses in Methods or Curriculum Construction by approximately one-quarter (25.3 per cent). Despite the establishment of a firm policy in the assignment of these courses in 1962, as reported earlier, a great variety in the kinds of courses taken by respondents is a little surprising. Does it mean that Indian teachers have had sufficient freedom to bypass the stipulation of the policy as to the assignment of courses? The data at hand do not answer this question.

The respondents were also asked to rate the overall usefulness of each certification course taken. Because of inadequate information supplied by the respondents in response to questions seeking this information, the data in Table 7.2 are presented in a manner which does not provide information on the usefulness of particular courses. Despite this, however, data do provide valuable information which can, perhaps be used in the general evaluation of the course assignment policy. The data indicate that more than half (52.1 per cent) of the respondents found the first course taken either of "considerable use" or "extremely useful". The proportion of those who found the course "not useful at all"

TABLE 7.1

CERTIFICATION COURSES TAKEN BY INDIAN TEACHERS BETWEEN
1958 - 1964

Order in Which Uni- versity of Alberta Courses Taken	1st Course		2nd Course		Total number of Respondents Taking Course	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Education Admini- stration (261,461)	24	33.8	12	16.9	36	50.7
History 370	6	8.5	6	8.5	12	16.9
Educational Foundations 492	2	2.8	3	4.2	5	7.1
Educational Foundations (414, 514)	3	4.2	6	8.5	9	12.7
Educational Psychology (476,478,308,502,508)	12	16.9	11	15.5	23	32.4
Arts Courses (History Economics, Sociology etc.)	4	5.4	3	4.2	7	9.9
Methods or Curriculum Courses	7	9.9	11	15.5	18	25.3
Speech Correction Courses	1	1.4	-	-	1	1.4
Others	3	4.2	1	1.4	4	5.6
No Reply or Not Yet Taken	9	12.7	18	25.4		
TOTAL	71	99.8	71	100.1		

TABLE 7.2
INDIAN TEACHERS' RATINGS OF USEFULNESS OF CERTIFICATION COURSES THEY HAVE TAKEN BY
SEX OF TEACHER

Usefulness of Course	SEX	First Course						Second Course					
		MALES			FEMALES			TOTAL			MALES		
											FEMALES		
		f	%	f	%	N	%	f	%	N	f	%	N
Extremely Useful		12	21.4	3	20	15	21.1	6	10.7	1	6.7	7	9.9
Of Considerable Use		18	32.1	4	26.7	22	31.0	19	33.9	4	26.7	23	32.4
Of Limited Use		7	12.5	2	13.3	9	12.7	9	16.1	-	-	9	12.7
Of Very Limited Use		8	14.3	-	-	8	11.2	7	12.5	2	13.3	9	12.7
Not At All Useful		1	1.8	1	6.7	2	2.8	2	3.6	-	-	2	2.8
No Response		10	17.9	5	33.3	15	21.1	13	23.2	8	53.3	21	29.6
TOTAL		56	100.0	15	100.0	71	99.9	56	100.0	15	100.0	71	100.1

was negligible (2.8 per cent). Sex of the respondents does not appear to influence the rating very much. In the case of the second course the response pattern is very similar to that for the first, except for one noticeable difference. That is, the proportion of males (44.6 per cent) rating the course as "extremely useful" or "of considerable use" is noticeably higher than that of the females (33.4 per cent). The "No Response" rate is higher for females (33.3 per cent and 53.5 per cent for the "First Course" and "Second Course" respectively) than for males (17.9 per cent and 23.2 per cent for the "First Course" and "Second Course" respectively).

TABLE 7.3

TEACHER PREFERENCE WITH RESPECT TO REQUIRED UNIVERSITY COURSES
FOR CERTIFICATION, BY SEX OF TEACHER

SEX	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
Courses Teachers Would Have Preferred To Take	f	%	f	%	f	%
The Same As The Two Assigned	18	32.1	6	40.0	24	33.8
One of the Two Assigned	16	28.8	1	6.7	17	23.9
Neither of the Two Assigned	13	23.1	4	26.7	17	23.9
No Response	9	16.1	4	26.7	13	18.3
TOTAL	56	100.1	15	100.1	71	99.9

Approximately one-third (33.8 per cent) of the respondents thought that they would have chosen to do the same two courses as ^aassigned, even if they had the freedom to select the courses (Table 7.3). More females (40.0 per cent) than males (32.1 per

cent) took that position. The proportion of those who would have selected at least one of the same courses as assigned, was 23.9 per cent, the proportion of males (28.8 per cent) far exceeding that of the females (6.7 per cent). The proportion of those who would have made a completely different choice of both courses, given free choice, was 23.9 per cent, sex differential being very small.

TABLE 7.4

KINDS OF COURSES RECOMMENDED BY INDIAN TEACHERS FOR CERTIFICATION PURPOSES, BY SEX OF RESPONDENT^a

SEX Courses Recommended	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	N	%
Courses in Methods	24	42.9	5	33.3	29	40.8
Courses Especially Designed for Foreign Teachers	27	48.2	1	6.7	28	39.4
Courses in Speech Correction	20	35.7	5	33.3	25	35.2
Courses in Sociology or Anthropology	10	17.9	2	13.3	12	16.9
Courses Relevant to the Teacher's Field of Specialization	4	7.1	3	20.0	7	9.9
Courses in Canadian History and Geography	2	3.6	1	6.7	3	4.2
Courses in Educational Administration	2	3.6	-	-	2	2.8
No Response	5	8.9	4	26.7	9	12.7

^aRespondents were free to make more than one choices in answering this question.

The respondents were also asked to make recommendations on the basis of their own experience as to what courses they thought would be most suitable for immigrant teachers to Alberta. These recommendations (Table 7.4) reveal a wide gap between the choice of courses made for them and that which their recommendations reveal. As pointed out in the preceding pages, according to the present course assignment policy, two courses--one in Canadian History (History 370) and the other in Educational Administration (Ed. Adm. 461)--are considered most suitable for foreign teachers coming to Alberta. The respondents in this study appear to think, on the contrary, that these two courses are least helpful to the incoming teacher. Only 4.2 per cent favour the History course and 2.8 per cent favour the Educational Administration course. Courses considered most desirable by the respondents are of three different types and are favoured in this order: Methods courses--40.8 per cent; Courses especially designed for Foreign Teachers--39.4 per cent; and Course(s) in Speech Correction--35.2 per cent. It is reasonable to conclude from this discussion that although the Indian teachers agree on the need for courses to orient them to Alberta education system, they strongly disagree with the official view as to the kind of orientation required and the courses best suited to provide it.

The official policy requires that these courses be taken at the end of the first year of teaching in Alberta

by all immigrant teachers. What the respondents considered as the most suitable time for taking certification courses is shown in Table 7.5:

TABLE 7.5

MOST SUITABLE TIME FOR TAKING CERTIFICATION COURSES BY SEX OF RESPONDENT

SEX Suitable Time	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	f	%	f	%	N	%
First Summer After Arrival	14	25.0	2	13.3	16	22.5
After at Least One Year's Teaching in Alberta	14	25.0	2	13.3	16	22.5
Anytime Between the First Two Years of Teaching in Alberta	10	17.9	4	26.7	14	19.7
Before Starting Teaching in Alberta	2	3.6	2	13.3	4	5.6
Present Requirement in This Regard is Satisfactory	13	23.2	4	26.7	17	23.9
No Response	2	3.6	1	6.7	3	4.2
TOTAL	56	100.1	15	100.0	71	99.8

The data indicate an apparent lack of consensus among the respondents on this issue, but if the alternatives are carefully analyzed it is seen that the first two in Table 7.5 are very similar to the "present requirement" in this regard. It would appear, therefore, that the respondents in this study find the requirements with regards

the time factor, by and large, quite satisfactory (68.9 per cent opting for the three alternatives just mentioned, taken together).

Recruitment of Indian Teachers to the Alberta School System

In the following few paragraphs will be discussed the various aspects of the recruitment of Indian teachers for this province: (a) reasons for coming to Alberta rather than some other province in Canada; (b) information regarding having taught in other Canadian provinces before coming to Alberta; (c) information on whether the first teaching job was secured while in India or some other country or after arrival and, (d) sources of information concerning teaching opportunities in Alberta.

The reasons given by each respondent (Table 7.6) provide some information on what factors influence the migration of individuals to particular areas or regions within a country. The data indicate that in the case of Indian teachers it was the presence of friends from India already teaching in Alberta which is most frequently quoted as the reason for coming to Alberta. Approximately half (53.5 per cent) of the respondents gave this as one of the reasons for coming to Canada. For about two-fifths (39.4 per cent) Alberta was the first and only province known to them which needed teachers. Approximately one-third (33.8 per cent) thought that they came here because

they felt the salaries were higher in this province than in most others in Canada.

The data on ranking of reasons (Table 7.6) indicate that the respondents perceived three reasons almost equally important in their decision to come to Alberta. The "presence of friends" in Alberta with 18.3 per cent response was ranked most important. Close behind it in importance, however, are "suitable certification requirements" (17 per cent) and Alberta as "first province known to recruit teachers from outside" (15.5 per cent). It is interesting, however, that the reason ranked as most important by the largest proportion of respondents is also ranked as least important by an approximately equal proportion (17 per cent). The percentage differences between "most important" and "least important" ranking responses for each reason reported in Table 7.6 would indicate that the respondents were most sharply divided among themselves with regard to the importance of "presence of friends" as a reason for their migration to Alberta. This lack of consensus, it should be noted, is despite the fact that the largest percentage of respondents (53.5) mentioned it as a reason for coming to Alberta.

Alberta was the first province in Canada where all the respondents, with the exception of six males, entered their teaching positions. Of the six males who had taught elsewhere in Canada before moving to Alberta, two each came from British Columbia and Saskatchewan, and one each from Nova Scotia and New Foundland.

TABLE 7.6

REASONS AND RANKING OF REASONS GIVEN BY INDIAN TEACHERS FOR COMING TO ALBERTA
BY SEX OF RESPONDENT ^a

SEX Reasons for Coming to Alberta	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL		Ranking of Reasons	
							Most	Least
	f	%	f	%	N	%	Important f %	Important f %
Friends from India Already Teaching Here	31	55.4	7	46.7	38	53.5	13 18.3	12 17.0
First Province Known to Recruit Teachers from Other Countries	23	41.1	5	33.3	28	39.4	11 15.5	7 9.9
Suitable Certifi- cation Requirements	21	37.5	3	20	24	33.8	12 17.0	7 9.9
Higher Salaries	9	16.1	1	6.7	10	14.1	5 7.1	3 4.2
Likelihood of Less Racial Discrimination	2	3.6	-	-	2	2.8	1 1.4	
Better opportunities for Professional Advancement	3	5.4	-	-	3	4.2	2 2.8	
No Response	3	5.4	3	20	6	8.5	27 38.0	42 59.1

^a Respondents were free to select more than one reasons in the check list.

TABLE 7.7

SOURCES OF INFORMATION THAT PROVED HELPFUL IN OBTAINING TEACHING POSITIONS IN ALBERTA
BY SEX OF RESPONDENT

SEX Source of Information	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL		Ranking of Sources of Information			
	f	%	f	%	N	%	Most Important	N	Least Important	%
Relatives and Friends Teaching/Working in Alberta, or Elsewhere in Canada	30	53.6	13	86.6	38	53.5	20	28.2	12	17.0
Foreign and Indian Educational Journals	29	51.8	8	53.3	37	52.2	29	40.8	1	1.4
Canadian High Commission in New Delhi	14	25.0	3	20.0	17	23.9	4	5.6	10	14.1
Others, Not Classified	6	10.7	2	13.3	8	11.2	2	2.8	5	7.1
No Responses	3	5.4	3	20.0	6	8.5	-	-	-	-

The majority of the respondents (64.8 per cent) secured their first teaching positions in Alberta before coming to Canada. In other words, they came straight to their pre-arranged teaching assignments. Approximately two-thirds (67.9 per cent) of the males and half (53.5 per cent) of the females came in this capacity. The remaining 35.2 per cent, 32.1 per cent males and 46.7 per cent females immigrated to Canada first and then sought and obtained teaching positions in Alberta. Could it be that, as a general rule, the Canadian Government encourages only those persons from India to immigrate who have already secured jobs commensurate with their training?

To obtain information on the sources of diffusion of information about Canada in general and Alberta in particular, the respondents were asked to give the sources of information that proved helpful in getting them teaching positions in Alberta. It was hypothesized in Chapter III that relatives and friends in Canada are one of the major sources of diffusion of knowledge about Canada and Alberta to persons in India. The information reported by respondents with respect to this hypothesis would appear to verify its validity. Data in Table 7.7 suggest three major sources of information mentioned here in order of their frequency: (a) relatives and friends teaching/working in Alberta or other parts of Canada (53.5 per cent respondents); (b) foreign and Indian educational journals (52.2 per cent respondents); and (c) Canadian High Commission in New Delhi (23.9 per cent

respondents). It is significant that "friends and relatives" are the most frequently mentioned source of information.

A breakdown of the data by sex of respondents indicates that "relatives and friends" play a greater role as sources of information for the females (86.6 per cent) than for the males (53.6 per cent).

From the data on ranking of reasons, however, it is clearly indicated that "relatives" played a role of only secondary importance as opposed to "educational journals". Approximately two-fifths (40.8 per cent) of the respondents ranked "educational journals" as the most important source compared to only 28.2 per cent ranking "relatives" that way. Moreover, a considerable proportion (17 per cent) of the respondents, also, consider the "relatives" as the least important source of information. The Canadian High Commission in New Delhi plays only an insignificant role in this respect as is indicated by the strikingly small proportion (5.6 per cent) of respondents who regarded it as most important and a relatively large proportion (14.1 per cent) who attached least importance to it.

Summary

It can be concluded from the preceding examination of the requirements and procedures regarding certification of Indian teachers in Alberta that the Alberta certification authority has tended to become more selective, especially since 1964. Two major problems regarding the certification of

teachers from India pertain to the evaluation of their university training obtained in India and proficiency of applicants in spoken English. These two problems, it has been suggested, have been used as mechanisms of control of and selection before entry of Indian teachers to Alberta Education System.

Problems subsequent to certification relate to selection and successful completion of two certification courses at the universities in Alberta required of every immigrant teacher from India. As to the need of two certification courses for the orientation of foreign teachers to Alberta system of education, the respondents were found to agree with the official view. Regarding the types of courses thought most effective for this orientation, however, there was virtually a total lack of agreement between the respondents and the certification authority. This finding has important implications for future policy with regard to the prescription of certification courses to teachers from India, and perhaps, to all foreign teachers. The certification courses strongly recommended by the respondents for future applicants are Methods courses, courses especially designed for Foreign Teachers, and Speech Correction courses. Courses least preferred but most commonly required to be taken by Indian teachers are Education Administration courses (261, 461) and History of Canada (370).

Finally, regarding the reasons for migrating to

Alberta rather than some other Canadian province and the sources of information which proved helpful in securing teaching positions, the most frequently mentioned factor, in each case, was the presence of relatives and friends in Alberta or elsewhere in Canada. This factor, however, was not considered the most important by Indian teachers. The factor assigned greatest importance was the knowledge of the fact that Alberta needed and recruited teachers from other countries. The second most important factor was the acceptability of Alberta certification requirements. Though mentioned less frequently as factor than presence in Canada of relatives and friends, the educational journals were considered more important as a source of information.

This résumé of findings about the entry of Indian teachers into the Alberta education system concludes the present chapter. The next chapter will deal with the presentation and analysis of data on respondents' motivations for migration to Canada as professional workers.

CHAPTER VIII

INDIAN TEACHERS' MOTIVATIONS FOR IMMIGRATION TO CANADA

This chapter presents data on Indian Teachers' motivations for immigration to Canada. These motivations are analyzed by cross-tabulating them against six independent variables, i. e., sex, age, urban-rural background, social class, social mobility and religious affiliation of the respondents for migration to Canada as perceived by the respondents is also reported. Table 8.1 presents the data on percentage distribution and ranking of motivations in a consolidated form, while Tables 8.2 and 8.7 present analysis of data in terms of each of the independent variables introduced separately.

For the purposes of analysis, the motivations as reported by the respondents were classified into the following seven categories:

- I - Better opportunities, e.g., increased chances for further professional development and advanced education;
- II - Financial gain, i.e., higher salaries and better standards of living;
- III - Interest in visiting North America and the Western World in general;
- IV - Patriotic motives, i.e., emphasis on returning to India after a protracted stay in Canada to con-

tribute new ideas and skills learned from direct work experience and advanced training during the sojourn;

V - Personal reasons, e.g., joining Canadian-born husband or wife, or other relatives already settled in Canada;

VI - Dissatisfaction with working conditions in and low status of teaching profession in India;

VII - Cultural marginality, i.e., relative estrangement from the Indian cultural milieu.

The first five motivational factors are similar in nature and may be treated as forming a broader category of "pull" factors. The last two, by the same token, can be grouped together into another category i.e., "push" factors.

Variables Used in the Analysis of Data

There is general agreement among sociologists about the importance of age, sex, urban-rural background, social class, social mobility, religion and other personal and sociological variables in the study of perception, attitudes and behavioral phenomena in general. There are few sociological reports or texts which do not deal with the question of social class, social mobility, religion or urban-rural background as well as age and sex, while examining the behaviour patterns of individuals and groups whether in the context of a school classroom, mental hospital, political party, church attendance or civic election. In short, the relevance and importance of these variables to most sociological investigations is

generally accepted.

By and large, social class has been found to influence child-rearing practices, political attitudes and political activity, sexual patterns, consumer behaviour, social ideology, physical and mental health, fertility, levels of aspiration and incidence of delinquency.¹ Relation between the aspirational level and intensity of achievement motive and social class of individuals has been shown to be particularly significant. A recent study has

. . . established a strong positive relationship between social class membership and the possession of the implementary values necessary for achievement, saliency of knowledge about the occupational structures,² and levels of education and occupational aspiration.

Differences in the type of motive to migrate may be connected with the social class position of the individual. It is generally agreed in the literature on migration that individuals migrate essentially, though not always, for reasons of economic betterment and social mobility. At least one writer has pointed out that this may be true for professionals as well. To examine its relevance to motivations for migration of Indian teachers, the present study uses the social class

¹Leonard Reissman, Class in American Society, (Glencoe: The Free Press, 1959), pp. 227-228.

²Mary Strong, "Social Class and Aspiration Among Students" (unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Alberta Alberta, Edmonton, May, 1963), p. XIII.

³See, W. M. Besterman, "Immigrations As a Means of Obtaining Needed Skills and Stimulating Economic and Social Advancement", International Migration, III, #4, 1965, p. 207.

background of the respondents for analysis of data.

Many scholarly studies have pointed out the importance of ways in which social mobility experience of individuals influences their mental health⁴, personal adjustment⁵, social participation⁶, and perception and objectivity in thought⁷, and political attitudes⁸. It is likely, therefore, that social mobility of the respondents in this study has some influence on what they consider are relevant motivational factors in their emigration. Social mobility is, therefore, also used in the analysis of their responses.

Since the time of the publication of two major works concerned with place of religion in human society, one by Max Weber⁹ and the other by Emile Durkheim¹⁰, religious

⁴E. Kirby, "Social Mobility and Mental Illness", American Sociological Review, XIX (1954), pp. 577-584.

⁵E. Durkheim, Suicide (Glencoe: The Free Press, 1951), pp. 246-254.

⁶G. E. Lenski, "Social Participation and Status Crystallization", American Sociological Review, XXI (1956), pp. 458-464.

⁷Karl Mannheim, Ideology and Utopia, (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc.), p. 282.

⁸W. F. Kenkel, "The Relationship between Status Consistency and Politico-Economic Attitudes", American Sociological Review, XXI (1956), pp. 365-368.

⁹Max Weber, The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism translated by Talcott Parsons (London: George Allen and Urwin, 1930).

¹⁰Emile Durkheim, Les Formes elementaires de la religieuse (Paris: F. Alcan, 1912).

affiliation has been recognized as an important variable in the analysis of social behaviour of man. Every religion provides its adherents with a peculiar world view and an orientation towards life in general. The influence of religious affiliation on levels of aspiration, strength of achievement motive and political and economic behaviour has been hypothesized and tested by various social scientists. Lenski has tested and found striking support for various hypotheses derived from Weber's work on religion. He found that the four major socio-religious groups in his study

differ significantly from one another with respect to a wide range of phenomena affecting, economic, political, kinship, educational, and scientific institutions.¹¹

In connection with India, Weber noted, that in contrast to the development of Capitalism with its interdependence on the "Protestant Ethic", the development of the "Spirit of Capitalism" was blocked by the Hindu religious orientation to life and to this world--by its mystic contemplation rather than an ascetic activism in daily life.¹² The religious variable, in the light of the preceding discussion, appears to be highly relevant to the analysis of data on motivations.

Urban-rural residence has also been considered to have

¹¹Gerhard Lenski, The Religious Factor: A Sociological Study of Religion's Influence on Politics, Economics, and Family Life (New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1961), p. 322.

¹²Reinhard Bendix, Max Weber: An Intellectual Portrait, (New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1960), pp. 193-199.

important bearing on the behaviour of individuals. As opposed to the rationalistic values associated with urban living, the rural residence has been thought to be associated with adherence to traditional values. Berelson and Steiner summarized, essentially from American studies, the major behavioral differences between urban and rural residents.¹³ They report among other things, more political and religious tolerance in urban than in rural areas; more change in cities, more stability in the country; and higher level of education in urban than in rural areas. Under the impact of the mass media of communication and the automobile, however, the isolation of the rural areas can no more exist. This should lead to the diminishing of traditional social differences between city and country in countries like Canada, the United States and other highly industrialized states. That this is, in fact, beginning to be the case has been pointed out by Bertrand¹⁴, as well as by Berelson¹⁵ and Steiner.

¹³
B. Berelson, G. Steiner, Human Behaviour: An Inventory of Scientific Findings (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1964).

¹⁴
A.L. Bertrand, (Ed.) Rural Sociology (New York: McGraw Hill, 1958), p. 46.

¹⁵
Berelson & Steiner, op. cit., pp. 606-607.

In India, however, in spite of a noticeable trend toward fast urbanization, approximately four-fifths of the population lives in rural areas and subsists on agriculture. Moreover, the diffusion of the "urban middle-class" values to the rural areas, considered an outstanding phenomenon of the present times in North America, has not assumed a socially important proportion in India because of the under-development of the mass media of communication and other such factors. The urban-rural residence, therefore, would appear to be an important variable influencing behaviour of individuals in India, despite the fact that it has been found to be losing importance with regard to achievement motivation in Alberta.¹⁶ Place of residence, therefore, has been used as another variable for analysis of the data.

The importance of sex and age of individuals in behavioural or attitude research is so widely recognized that the use of these variables in this study hardly needs any special justification. In all human societies sex and age of individuals play an important part in determining the status and role of each individual within his group or social system.

16

Pauline A. Jones, "Integration Setting and Need for Achievement", (unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Alberta, 1965), p. iv. The findings of another Alberta study, however, indicate that place of residence has important bearing on the levels of aspiration of high school students. See, Mary Strong, op. cit., p. XV.

Understanding human behaviour involves understanding the interaction between people in various types of groups and social systems. The relevance of personal characteristics such as sex and age to status-role theory which provides a theoretical framework for understanding human behaviour can not be over-emphasized. Moreover, the relationship between sex and age on one hand and political, social, and religious attitudes on the other has been amply pointed out in recent research on attitudes, opinions and behaviour.¹⁷ In some psychologically oriented surveys of American students, men have been found to score higher consistently on tests of theoretical, economic, and political values, and women to score higher on the aesthetic, religious, and social values.¹⁸

Analysis of Data

Respondents showed a general tendency to emphasize the importance of 'pull' factors in reporting their motivations to immigrate to Canada (Table 8.1). Each of the first three factors--"Better opportunities"; "Financial gain", and "Interest in visiting the Western World",--were reported by more than half the respondents as their motivations for coming to Canada. It is of interest that motivation I pertaining to increased chances for further professional and academic development was reported by the largest proportion (66.1 per cent) to have motivated them to immigrate to Canada.

¹⁷Berelson and Steiner, op. cit., p. 573.

¹⁸W. F. Dukes, "Psychological Studies of Values", Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 52, 1955, pp. 24-50, referred to in ibid., p. 574.

TABLE 8.1

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION AND RANKING OF INDIAN TEACHERS' MOTIVATIONS FOR IMMIGRATION TO CANADA^a

Code for Motivations	"Yes" Responses ^b	IMPORTANCE	
		High	Low
I	66.1	40.7	8.4
II	60.6	33.8	12.6
III	52.1	21.2	29.6
IV	28.2	7.0	11.2
V	26.7	16.9	4.2
VI	25.7	12.6	12.6
VII	19.7	7.0	14.1

^aIn this and all subsequent Tables in Chapter VIII, the code for motivations is:

- I - Better opportunities, e.g., increased chances for further professional development and advanced education.
- II - Financial gain, i.e., higher salaries and better standard of living.
- III - Interest in visiting North America and the Western World in general.
- IV - Patriotic motives, i.e., emphasis on returning to India after a protracted stay in Canada to contribute new ideas and skills learned from direct work experience and advanced training during the sojourn.
- V - Personal reasons, e.g., joining Canadian-born wife or husband, or other relatives already settled in Canada.
- VI - Dissatisfaction with working conditions in and low status of teaching profession in India; frustration with the "out-dated" educational system in India.
- VII - Cultural marginality, i.e., relative estrangement from the Indian cultural milieu.

^bRespondents were not limited in the number of motivations they could report. They were free to report as many motivations as they thought were relevant.

In this respect, the motive for financial gain, which one would expect to be the primary motive for Indians migrating to Canada, has been relegated to second place, receiving 60.6 per cent of the responses. Difference in proportions, however, is small and one response is not inconsistent with the other. Both these factors seem to have high salience in the minds of the respondents. The interest in visiting the Western World is the third most frequently mentioned motive. Roughly half (52.1 per cent) of the respondents mentioned it.

Further, the data indicate that only 28.2 per cent of the respondents reported to have been influenced by the "Patriotic motive" in their immigration to Canada. In other words, there is only a minority (28.2 per cent) who would like to go back with the intention of contributing their newly acquired skills to the development of India. If approximately a quarter of the respondents migrated for patriotic motives, about the same proportion (25.7 per cent) did so because they were dissatisfied and frustrated with various aspects of the teaching profession in India.¹⁹ "Cultural marginality" was mentioned by the smallest proportion (19.7 per cent) of the

¹⁹The proportion of those who reported dissatisfaction with teaching in India may appear to be high at a first glance. In the light of the existence of numerous strong sources of dissatisfaction and frustration pointed out and criticized by more than one Indian educators, however, this proportion of the "dissatisfied" should hardly appear unexpected. For a general appraisal of problems in the teaching profession in India, see, H. Kabir, Education in New India, (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955), pp. 151-185.

respondents as relevant to their emigration from India. Nonetheless, it is important to note that nearly as many as one-fifth of the respondents mention it, despite the fact that they may be more inhibited in attributing negative motives to their migration for reasons of ego-defence and national esteem.²⁰ However, the proportion of those ranking "Cultural marginality" low in importance was noticeably greater (14.1 per cent) than that of the respondents ranking it highly important (7.0 per cent).

Table 8.1 also shows the ranking of motivations in terms of their importance to each respondent.²¹ In interpreting the data on ranking in this and in the subsequent tables, two points must be kept in mind. First, if the percentage of "high" responses is large, the percentage of "low"

²⁰On the estrangement of Indian university graduates and intellectuals, Shils' analysis and account makes a revealing and sociologically interesting reading. He holds the Indian Universities and the kind of education they offer, strongly influenced by the English and Western thought in general, responsible for the cultural alienation of university graduates and intellectuals. See, E. A. Shils, The Intellectual Between Tradition and Modernity: The Indian Situation (Hague: Morton & Co., 1961), pp. 59-87.

²¹The data on ranking are presented in terms of high-low dichotomy. Originally the respondents were asked to rank the motivations slightly differently. They were asked to indicate the "most important" and the "second most important" factors on the one hand and the "least important" and the "second least important" factors on the other. Because of the small numbers involved in these responses, however, new categories of "high" and "low" importance had to be devised by summing the responses in each pair mentioned above. This made the data presentation somewhat more intelligible.

responses will be expected to be small and vice versa. The larger the relative percentage difference between the two types of responses for each motivation the clearer the position as to the importance of the motivation. Second, regardless of the actual size of the "high" and "low" responses, the less the relative percentage difference between the "high" and "low" responses, the more ambiguous the position as to the importance of the motivational factor involved.²²

The data indicate (Table 8.1) that the respondents expressed least doubt about the high importance of motivation I i.e., they perceived the promise of "Better opportunities" of high importance in their decision to immigrate to Canada. Surprisingly enough, however, consensus about the high importance of "Financial" gain (II), is weaker than for "Better opportunities" (I). This is indicated by the larger percentage (12.6) of "low importance" responses on the one hand and the smaller difference between the percentages of high and low importance responses on the other, for motive II.

The ranking of two more motivational factors, "Interest in visiting the Western World" (III) and "Dissatisfaction with working conditions" (VI), is worthy of special notice. Despite

²²Research on attitudes has made a distinction between two aspects of attitudes called content and intensity. In the Tables in this Chapter, the distribution of "yes" responses refers to the directional aspect (content) of motivations while ranking responses indicate the strength or conviction (intensity) with which respondents held them. On the problems involved in the analysis of data of this type, see, Orville G. Brim, Jr., "Attitude Content-Intensity And Probability Expectations", American Sociological Review, Vol. 68, (Feb., 1955), pp. 68-76.

the fact that "Interest in visiting the Western World" is third highest among the motivations in terms of responses received, the percentage of respondents (29.6) considering it of low importance was greater than of those (21.2) ranking it as highly important. Moreover, the percentage difference between the high and low responses is strikingly small. This almost even split, despite the relatively high "yes" response, indicates a lack of agreement on the importance of "Interest in visiting the Western World" as a motivational factor. Ambiguity in the minds of the respondents as to the importance of this motivation might have brought into play the "equiprobability through ignorance" principle.²³ The ranking of the motive, "Dissatisfaction with working conditions", resulted in an exactly even split, 12.6 per cent ranking it high and another 12.6 per cent ranking it low in importance. One wonders if the negative nature of motivation VI, by stirring a feeling of insecurity in the respondents, had pushed some of them into denying its importance. The relatively small percentage (25.7) of overall responses to this motivation, one which would be expected to rank high in the minds of professionals especially, would suggest that.

From the discussion so far, it can be said that, speaking generally, the respondents considered "Better

²³Brim, while discussing a somewhat different kind of data, refers to this principle and says that "items about which individuals have sound information, or at least believe they do, are those items on which they are "Very Sure" they are right The other items, on which they are "Partly Sure" or "Not Sure at All", are thrown toward the middle or 50 per cent range" Ibid., p.71. Brim's argument suggests one way in which the present data can be looked at and interpreted.

opportunities" and "Financial gain" as the primary motivations while the remainder appeared to them of only secondary importance.

This concludes a general examination of the data on motivations. Data will now be examined briefly in terms of each of the six variables discussed in the earlier part of this chapter.

SEX

As seen in Table 8.2, there are noticeable differences between male and females with respect to "Yes" responses for four factors. Approximately two-thirds of the males (66.1 per cent) and only two-fifths (40.0 per cent) of the female respondents considered "Financial gain" as a motive in their immigration to Canada. Importance-wise again, more males (37.5 per cent than females 20.0 per cent) rank this motive as high. With regard to the "Patriotic motive", fewer males (25.0 per cent) than females (40.0 per cent) considered it as relevant to their migration. At the same time, however, females appeared to be more sure as a group than the males in suggesting its low importance to them "Cultural

TABLE 8.2

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION AND RANKING OF INDIAN TEACHERS' MOTIVATIONS FOR IMMIGRATION TO CANADA BY SEX OF RESPONDENT

Code ^a for Motivations	SEX	MALE (n ₁ = 56)		FEMALE (n ₂ = 15)			
		"Yes" Responses	IMPORTANCE High Low	"Yes" Responses	IMPORTANCE High Low		
I		66.1	52.8 7.2	66.6	33.3 13.3		
II		66.1	37.5 14.3	40.0	20.0 6.7		
III		51.8	21.4 33.9	53.3	20.0 13.3		
IV		25.0	7.2 9.0	40.0	6.7 20.0		
V		26.8	16.1 5.4	26.7	20.0 13.3		
VI		23.2	10.7 10.7	33.3	20.0 20.0		
VII		23.2	7.2 14.3	6.7	6.7 -		

^aSee Footnote, Table 8.1.

marginality" as a motivation for migration seemed to be almost entirely limited to males, with the exception of one female. More females (33.3 per cent) than males (23.2 per cent) thought "Dissatisfaction with working conditions "was a motive in their migration but both groups were equally divided on the question of its importance.

In general, the differences in responses attributable to sex are not great. A broad agreement on the primacy as well as ranking of the motivation factors is clearly discernible from the data. It may be pointed out that the two groups differ so much in size that a few extreme or atypical persons among females could influence the percentages to a great extent. The differences between the percentages while comparing males and females should, therefore, be interpreted with caution.

AGE

Except for the first two motivations in Table 8.3, the data indicate a strikingly high degree of agreement between the two groups. Responses to the primary motives, the "Better opportunities" and "Financial gain", are, on the other hand, clearly influenced by the age factors. Eighty per cent of the younger group and only 48.4 per cent of the older group reported "Better opportunities" as a motive for their immigration. Further, more than half (52.5 per cent) of the younger group and a quarter (25.9 per cent) of the older group considered the first motive of high importance. Regarding the

second motive, i.e., "Financial gain", 55.0 per cent of the younger group as opposed to 67.7 per cent of the older group considered it relevant to immigration. Again, only a quarter (25.0 per cent) of the younger group and approximately half (45.1 per cent) of the older group considered financial gain as a highly important motive.

TABLE 8.3

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION AND RANKING OF INDIAN TEACHERS' MOTIVATIONS FOR IMMIGRATION TO CANADA BY AGE OF RESPONDENT

Code ^a for Motivations	Age	35 Years or Under (n ₁ = 40)			Over 35 Years (n ₂ = 31)		
		"Yes" Responses	Importance High Low		"Yes" Responses	Importance High Low	
I		80.0	52.5	10.0	48.4	25.9	6.4
II		55.0	25.0	10.0	67.7	45.1	16.2
III		52.5	20.0	30.0	51.6	23.0	29.0
IV		27.5	7.5	10.0	29.0	6.5	12.9
V		27.5	20.0	5.0	25.8	6.5	8.2
VI		25.0	15.0	15.0	25.8	9.7	9.7
VII		20.0	12.5	19.4	6.5	6.5	16.2

^aSee Footnote a, Table 8.1.

Primary motives of "Better opportunity" and "Financial gain" had an unequal attraction to the two groups of respondents. The difference appears to be a function of their age. The older group's emphasis on "Financial gain" and younger group's emphasis on "Better opportunity" are findings which are understandable as well as interesting. Age, for the majority of human beings, is an important factor in governing or perhaps controlling the extensity as well as the intensity

of their aspirations.

Urban-Rural Background

As seen in Table 8.4, the urban group and the rural group consistently show differences in their "Yes" responses to all motivations. Except for the "Better opportunity" motive, the "Yes" responses of the rural group to all motivations are somewhat higher than those for the urban group. With regard to the first motivation, although there are no important differences between the two groups in respect of ranking, a larger number of urban (68.6 per cent) than rural (60.0 per cent) respondents reported it as a motivation for their immigration to Canada. As far as the "Financial gain" factor is concerned, seventy per cent of rural as opposed to 56.8 per cent of urban respondents reported it as a motive for migration. There appears, however, a somewhat stronger tendency among urban than rural respondents to rank this motive as highly important. Could it be that urban values place more emphasis on professional and academic advancement and rural values stress the financial betterment? Or, could the age factor for which no control has been applied and which has been shown to be associated with these two motivations, be influencing the results in the present case? Since information on the age distribution for the urban and rural groups is not available separately, this question cannot be answered here.

TABLE 8.4

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION AND RANKING OF INDIAN TEACHERS' MOTIVATIONS FOR IMMIGRATION TO CANADA BY URBAN-RURAL ORIGIN OF RESPONDENT

ORIGIN Code ^a for Motivations	URBAN (n ₁ = 51)			RURAL (n ₂ = 20)		
	"Yes" Responses	Importance		"Yes" Responses	Importance	
		High	Low		High	Low
I	68.6	41.1	7.8	60.0	40.0	10.0
II	56.8	33.2	9.7	70.0	35.0	20.0
III	49.0	11.7	25.1	60.0	35.0	20.0
IV	25.4	7.8	9.7	35.0	5.0	15.0
V	25.4	15.6	5.8	30.0	20.0	-
VI	23.5	9.8	11.8	30.0	15.0	10.0
VII	15.6	5.8	13.9	30.0	10.0	15.0

^aSee Footnote a, Table 8.1

From among the secondary motivational factors, one on which respondents seem to differ in an important way is "Interest in visiting the Western World". Not only did more respondents with rural backgrounds (60 per cent) as compared to the urban group (49 per cent) chose "Interest in visiting the Western World" as a motive for their migration but they also ranked it more important. The urban group, in fact, appeared to give it very low importance.

Social Class²⁴

As seen in Table 8.5, social class of respondents seems,

²⁴Social class and classification of respondents into class categories have been discussed in Chapter V. The occupation of respondents' father was used in the classification.

TABLE 8.5

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION AND RANKING OF INDIAN TEACHERS' MOTIVATIONS
FOR IMMIGRATION TO CANADA BY SOCIAL CLASS OF RESPONDENT

SOCIAL CLASS Code for Motivations	UPPER (n ₁ = 23)		LOWER (n ₂ = 32)		No Information on (n ₃ = 16)	
	"Yes" Responses	IMPORTANCE		"Yes" Responses	Social Background	
		High	Low		"Yes" Responses	IMPORTANCE High Low
I	61.0	47.7	4.3	72.0	56.3	37.6 18.8
II	47.8	30.3	8.6	78.2	43.7	1 5 18.8
III	34.8	15.2	17.2	72.0	37.5	37.6 12.5
IV	21.7	4.3	12.9	43.7	6.3	6.3 6.7
V	26.1	17.3	4.3	28.2	25.0	18.8 -
VI	13.0	8.6	4.3	37.5	18.8	12.5 18.8
VII	17.4	8.6	17.2	25.0	12.5	- 12.5

^aSocial Class and Classification of respondents into class categories has been discussed in Chapter V.

^bSee Footnote a, Table 8.1.

in general, to have some influence on the motivations, and their rankings, of respondents. The two groups, the "Upper Class" and the "No information", look quite similar to each other, but are quite different from the "lower class" group. The "Lower Class" group is noticeably higher than the other two groups in reporting "Yes" responses to all motivations. The "Upper Class" group is much more unanimous in ranking "Better opportunities" highly important as compared to the other two groups. On the contrary, the "Lower Class" group shows stronger consensus in ranking highly important the "Financial gain" motivation. The "Lower Class" group, again, despite its 72.0 per cent of members reporting "Interest in visiting the Western World", also, quite conclusively, ranks it as of low importance. The only group reporting this motive highly important, although not very conclusively, is the "No information" group. Differences with respect to other motivations are comparatively less important. One thing, however, should be noticed. The "Yes" response for "Cultural marginality" is higher (25 per cent) for "Lower Class" groups than either "Upper Class" group, (17.4 per cent) or "No information" group (12.5 per cent).

Social Mobility²⁵

Social mobility of respondents and their motivations show a complex relationship as seen in Table 8.6. On the

²⁵ Social mobility of respondents was discussed in Chapter V.

TABLE 8.6
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION AND RANKING OF INDIAN TEACHERS' MOTIVATIONS FOR IMMIGRATION TO CANADA BY SOCIAL MOBILITY OF RESPONDENT^a

MOBILITY Code for Motivations	MOBILE ^c (n ₁ = 34)			NOT MOBILE (n ₂ = 21)			No Information on Social Mobility "Yes" (n ₃ = 16) Responses		
	"Yes" Responses	High	Low	"Yes" Responses	High	Low	High	Low	
I	70.5	38.1	5.8	71.5	57.0	4.7	50.0	25.0	18.8
II	70.5	44.0	11.7	52.3	33.3	9.4	50.0	12.5	18.8
III	64.1	14.6	41.1	38.1	19.0	19.0	43.7	37.5	18.8
IV	38.2	8.8	11.7	23.8	4.7	14.2	12.5	6.3	6.3
V	26.5	17.6	5.8	23.8	14.2	4.7	31.2	18.8	-
VI	35.2	14.6	14.6	14.3	9.4	4.7	18.7	12.5	18.8
VII	26.5	8.8	11.7	19.0	4.7	19.0	6.3	6.3	18.8

^aFor discussion on social mobility of respondents, see Chapter V.

^bSee footnote a, Table 8.1

^cIn the socially mobile group are included, 32 upwardly mobile and 2 downwardly mobile respondents.

"Better opportunity" motivation, there is virtually no difference between the "Mobile" (70.5 per cent) and "Not-mobile: (71.5 per cent) in "Yes" responses but the two groups show important differences in ranking it. Fifty-seven per cent of "Not-mobile" and only 38.1 per cent of "Mobile" respondents ranked the first factor as highly important. On the "Financial gain" motivation, 70.5 per cent of the "Mobile and 52.3 per cent of the "Not-mobile" groups gave "Yes" response. The "Mobile" group also showed a more widespread tendency to rank this item highly important than the "Non-mobile group. In fact, it appears that the responses of the "Mobile" group and the "non-mobile" group are quite comparable to the responses of the "Lower Class" group and the "Upper Class" group, respectively. Similarly the group with "No information" on its mobility is very similar to the "No information" group in the social class classification. It is possible, that in the social class classification and the social mobility classification, the groups compared above are constituted approximately of the same respondents.

Religious Affiliation

The data on religious classification in Table 8.7 indicates that Sikh and Christian respondents are almost similar to each other. The Hindus especially, in respect of "Better opportunity" motivation and the last four of the secondary motivations (IV to VII) differ in important manner from the other two groups. It is interesting to find 82.7

TABLE 8.7

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION AND RANKING OF INDIAN TEACHERS' MOTIVATIONS
FOR IMMIGRATION TO CANADA BY RELIGIOUS BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENT

RELIGION Code ^a Motivations	SIKHS			HINDUS			CHRISTIANS		
	"Yes" Responses	IMPORTANCE		"Yes" Responses	IMPORTANCE		"Yes" Responses	IMPORTANCE	
		High	Low		High	Low		High	Low
I	61.2	38.6	38.6	82.7	47.7	13.0	53.0	35.2	5.8
II	58.0	29.0	12.8	60.9	30.3	17.3	64.8	47.0	5.8
III	48.4	16.0	29.0	52.2	30.3	26.0	58.9	17.6	35.2
IV	32.3	6.4	12.8	21.7	8.6	13.0	29.4	5.8	5.8
V	32.3	25.7	6.4	17.4	-	4.3	29.4	23.4	-
VI	32.3	22.5	9.6	13.1	4.3	17.3	29.4	5.8	11.7
VII	35.5	12.8	12.8	4.4	4.3	8.6	11.7	-	23.4

^aSee Footnote a, Table 8.1.

per cent of the Hindus as opposed to 61.2 per cent of the Sikhs and only 53 .0 per cent of Christians reporting "Better opportunity" for further professional and educational development as a motivation for migration to Canada. Furthermore, of the three groups, Hindus have the largest percentage (47.7) of those ranking the "Better opportunity" motive as highly important, while Sikhs, and Christians with only 38.6 per cent and 35.2 per cent do so. The Christian group has the largest percentage (47.0) of those who ranked the "Financial motive" as highly important, both Hindus and Sikhs having approximately 30 per cent in that position.

Responses to two other motives, VI and VII, are noteworthy. Only 13.1 per cent of Hindus compared to 32.2 per cent of Sikhs and 29.4 per cent of Christians reported dissatisfaction with "Working conditions" (VI) as a motive to migration. All three groups, however, ranked it low in importance, Hindus taking this position most clearly of all. Compared to only 4.4 per cent of Hindus and 11.7 per cent of Christians, a large proportion of Sikhs (35.5 per cent) indicated "Cultural marginality" (VII) as a motive to migration to Canada. One wonders if this indicates a lower degree of commitment to Indian culture and values among Sikh respondents than others.

Summary

On the basis of the preceeding analysis it can be concluded that respondents, generally, see the motives of "Better opportunities" for professional and educational

advancement and "Financial gain" as the most influential and important in their decision to immigrate to Canada. If the respondent was young, had urban background, was from upper social class, was not mobile, and was Hindu then the "Better opportunity" motive was more powerful for him than any other. If, on the other hand, he was relatively older, had rural background, was from lower social class, was mobile, and was not a Hindu, the "Financial gain" motive was of prime importance in his decision to migrate.

The saliency of "Better opportunities" motive in the minds of respondents exhibiting the first set of characteristics and of the "Financial gain" motive in the minds of those with the second set of characteristics seems to indicate that perception of motivations is related to factors such as age, kind of community of origin, social class, previous social mobility and, to some extent, even religious orientation of individuals.²⁴ There is little doubt that all the respondents were motivated to migrate primarily by the desire for upward mobility, but the kind of upward mobility sought is different. The older, rural, lower social class, non-Hindu respondents were more concerned with "income mobility", a more tangible goal, while the younger, urban, upper social class, Hindu respondents saw in

²⁴Research in the field of social stratification related to perception and awareness of occupational opportunity and aspirational level supports the findings about Indian teachers' perception of motivations to migrate. See, S. M. Lipset and R. Bendix, Social Mobility in Industrial Society (Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1960), pp. 203-226; Leonard Reissman, Class in American Society, (Glencoe, The Free Press, 1959), pp. 360-368.

their migration avenues for further education, the modern "freeway" to social advancement.

The factor of religion, so important in Indian culture deserves special mention in this conclusion. Hindu religion has been thought to lead individuals away from success in this world and dispose them to pursuits seeking salvation in the other world. At least the respondents in the present study do not appear to be influenced in that direction by their religious affiliations. It is therefore hypothesized that the community, social class and age variables are more relevant than religion to perception of motivations to migration of Indian teachers.

In this chapter an effort has been made to see if there was any relationship between the respondents' perception of motivations to migration to Canada and several sociological and personal variables related to the respondents. The following chapter attempts an analysis of the respondents' perception of problems in Alberta situations in relation to selected personal, environmental and situational variables.

CHAPTER IX

PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED BY AND FUTURE ASPIRATIONS OF INDIAN TEACHERS IN ALBERTA SCHOOLS

This chapter deals primarily with the presentation and analysis of the data on problems encountered by Indian teachers in the Alberta situation. Subsequent to the analysis and discussion of the problems, the respondents' aspirations with regard to professional and academic training and future plans will be examined. Finally, the question of the retention of the respondents in the Alberta teaching force will be briefly discussed.

Data on problems, perceived and reported by the respondents were classified into the following seven categories:

- I - General lack of interest of students in school work and general lack of discipline; so different from the situation in schools in India.
- II - Feeling of loneliness and being a "stranger" in the community; occasional home-sickness.
- III - Harsh climate; difficulties in getting used to Canadian food, especially during the first year.
- IV - Excessive work-load; too many school subjects to teach, school supervision, etc.
- V - Problems in communication, especially during the first year of teaching, due to difficulties such as different accent and pronunciation, use of

different idiom in spoken language, unfamiliarity with slang expressions, etc.

VI - Generally overly critical and even hostile and uncooperative attitude of public and parents towards teachers and school; lack of understanding between community and school.

VII - Differences in teaching methods used in the classroom.

It is to be noted that the preceding list contains essentially two types of problems. Five of the problems, I and then IV to VII, refer to "Student Indifference", "Work-Load", "Communication", "Parents and Public" attitude, and "Teaching Methods". Since these problems are similar in that they all pertain to the institutional or organizational aspects of school and teaching, they may be called institutional problems. Problems II and III, referring to feeling of "Loneliness" and "Climate and Food", are quite distinct from and located outside the professional sphere of work. These two problems, therefore, may be called personal problems.

Variables Used for Analysis

To analyze the data on problems, the following variables are employed: personal variables of sex and age, cultural variables of intercultural experience (stay in other foreign countries prior to coming to Canada) and religion, situational variables of kind of community and

distance of community (from Edmonton/Calgary) where teaching, and 'institutional' variables of grade-level of teaching and school-size (in terms of the number of full time teachers). Of these eight variables, the first three, sex, age and religion, were used in the previous chapter as well. Intercultural experience, the fact that a respondent had the chance of living/working in a culture different from his own, is likely to influence his perception of problems in the Alberta situation and, perhaps, his capacity to deal with them. Thus, it is hypothesized that this variable will not only influence a respondent's perception of but also the importance he attaches to the problems.

"Situational" variables, like rural or urban nature of the community and its distance from major cultural centres in the province, may bear a relationship to the nature of the school plant and the attitudes of parents and students towards education and school. It is probable that the ease with which adequate teaching staff can be recruited also depends on the kind and "distantness" of the communities. In the light of the foregoing implications of these situational variables they were used for the analysis of the data on problems.

Similarly, it may be expected that "institutional" variables, grade-level of teaching and number of teachers in a school are related to the kind of demands that an educational institution will make on the skills, energy and time of the teachers. Problems of work-load are likely to be

acute, especially in High schools of smaller size. Analysis of data on problems in relation to these variables was, therefore, deemed necessary.

Analysis of Data on Problems¹

Table 9.1 presents the data on problems in the simplest form. The data reveal that the most commonly mentioned problems are those of "Student Indifference" towards school work and lack of discipline in school (I) and the feeling of "Loneliness" (II). The high salience of these two problems is indicated by the high proportion of respondents (53.5 per cent) reporting them. Canadian environmental factors such as "Climate and Food" (III), were considered relevant to their experiences by the second largest group (45.1 per cent) of respondents.² Next, roughly 36 per cent of the teachers mentioned "Excessive Work-load" (IV) and "Communication" (V) as problems in Alberta schools. Thus, IV and V form the third most salient group of problem in respondents' perception. The problems, in the fourth place in terms of their salience to the respondents, appear to be the last two, critical attitudes towards school and teachers of the "Parents and Public" (VI), and "Teaching Methods" (VII).

¹In interpreting the data on problems here, the approach used in the preceding chapter in dealing with "Motivations of respondents, is followed.

²Problem III, "Canadian Climate and Food", combines responses to problem in getting used to Canadian food (8.5 per cent) and Canadian climate (36.6 per cent). In other words, Problem III refers primarily to difficulties due to harsh climate.

TABLE 9.1

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION AND RANKING OF PROBLEMS PERCEIVED
IN ALBERTA SITUATION BY INDIAN TEACHERS^a

Code for Problems	N = 71 "Yes" Responses ^b	IMPORTANCE	
		High	Low
I. Student Indifference	53.5	47.8	11.2
II. Loneliness	53.5	26.8	18.3
III. Canadian Climate and Food	45.1	23.9	16.9
IV. Work-load	36.1	11.7	9.8
V. Communication	35.2	12.6	18.3
VI. Parents and Public	22.5	7.0	7.0
VII. Teaching Methods	14.1	2.8	7.0

^aIn this and the subsequent Tables up to and including Table 9.10 in Chapter IX, the code for Problems perceived by Indian teachers is:

- I. General lack of interest of students in school work and general lack of discipline; so different from the situation in India.
- II. Feeling of loneliness and of being a "stranger" in the community; occasional home-sickness.
- III. Harsh climate; difficulties in getting used to Canadian food, especially during the first year.
- IV. Excessive work-load; too many school subjects to teach, school supervision, etc.
- V. Problems in communication, especially during the first year of teaching, due to difficulties such as different accent and pronunciation, use of different idiom in spoken language, unfamiliarity with slang expressions, etc.
- VI. Generally overly critical and even hostile and uncooperative attitude of public and parents toward teachers and school; lack of understanding between community and school.
- VII. Differences in teaching methods used in the classroom.

^bMost of the problems listed above were suggested in the questionnaire (Appendix A), but the respondents were encouraged to list additional problems.

It can be seen from the preceding analysis that the problems as encountered by the respondents in Alberta schools and communities do not fall neatly in only one of the two problem categories, the "institutional" or the "personal". Problems reported as salient by the respondents pertain to both types as suggested by the proportion of responses received by each of the problems. Salience in the respondents' perception of "personal" problems, arising from harsh climate or from living in distant, isolated and small communities, especially during the long and cold winters, should not appear to be surprising. In the "institutional" problems area, it is interesting to observe that relatively small proportions recognized "Work-load" (36.6 per cent) and "Communication" (35.2 per cent) as problems.

In the section on ranking of the problems in Table 9.1, again, a definite pattern is discernible from the data. Regardless of their size with respect to each other, the proportions of "High" importance responses for the first four problems (I to IV) are larger than the respective "Low" importance responses. For problems, V to VII, the "Low" importance proportions are either equal or larger than the respective "High" importance proportions. In other words, the direction of ranking is reversed for the three problems, "Communication", "Public and Parents" and "Teaching Methods". It is noteworthy that all these three problems belong to the institutional set of problems. "Communication" and "Teaching

Methods" were ranked clearly of low importance while "Parents and Public" attitudes were not ranked in as clear and certain terms. The respondents appear to be divided in their opinions regarding the importance of this factor.³

The problem of "Student Indifference" and lack of discipline (I) was ranked highest in importance by Indian teachers; "Loneliness (II), "Canadian Climate" (III), and "Work-load" (IV) followed it in order of decreasing importance. Is it probable that ranking of "Student Indifference" as the most important problem by respondents is related to the role-expectations of the Indian teachers regarding student behaviour in the classroom? In India, a teacher, especially in a classroom situation, is expected to be less permissive than a teacher in Alberta schools, commands more respect for his role as a teacher, is shown special deference by students because of age differentials and so on.⁴ The traditional position of high respect of a teacher, emphasis on age in a status-role situation, and general expectations held by adults regarding children's attitude toward authority, are some of the cultural determinants of an Indian teacher's role-expectations vis-à-vis

³To the extent that Canadian teachers complain that parents, in general, are overly critical of and uncooperative toward schools and teachers, one would expect that Indian teachers had accepted this professional attitude as a part of their "socialization" and "integration" into the profession at the school level. From the present data, however, one can at best infer that either the Canadian teachers in general do not consider parents' attitude as a problem or that Indian teachers have not as yet adopted that view from their Alberta colleagues.

⁴This observation is based on the investigator's own experiences in India both in the capacity of a student and a teacher.

his students. The Western Canadian culture seems to differ from the Indian culture in terms of the emphasis on and, perhaps, even the existence of some of the cultural factors just mentioned. It is possible, therefore, that the role-expectations of the respondents rather than the actual classroom behaviour of the students are related to their highest ranking given to student behaviour as a problem. Also, the possibility exists that in the marginal area where most teachers teach the 'drop-out' rate is high. Hence student indifference may be present to a high degree.

After this general discussion on the data regarding problems, analysis of data in terms of each of the eight variables is next presented.

Sex

The sex of respondents appears, generally, to be related to the perception of problems (Table 9.2). The greatest apparent difference between males and females can be observed in their responses to problems II and III. Higher salience of "personal" problems for females than males is indicated by the fact that a larger proportion of females than that of males mentioned problems of "Loneliness (II) and "Canadian Climate and Food (III) as relevant to their experience. In fact, these Canadian environmental factors (II and III) were the most relevant of all problems to the female respondents as indicated by the 'yes' responses, while females gave higher importance than males to "Loneliness" (II) as indicated by the differences between the "high" and "low" importance

responses of each group, the males appeared more certain than females in assigning high importance to "Canadian Climate and Food" (III).

TABLE 9.2

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION AND RANKING OF PROBLEMS PERCEIVED IN ALBERTA SITUATION BY INDIAN TEACHERS BY SEX OF RESPONDENT^a

Code	SEX for Problems	"Yes" Responses	MALE n ₁ = 56		FEMALE n ₂ = 15		
			IMPORTANCE High	Low	"Yes" Responses	IMPORTANCE High	Low
I.	Student Indifference	60.7	51.8	12.15	26.7	33.3	6.7
II.	Loneliness	51.8	26.8	19.7	60.0	26.6	13.3
III.	Canadian Climate and Food	42.9	26.8	17.8	53.3	13.3	13.3
IV.	Work-load	33.9	12.5	10.8	46.7	6.7	6.7
V.	Communication	35.7	12.5		33.3	13.3	-
VI	Parents and Public	25.0	8.9	8.9	13.3	-	-
VII	Teaching Methods	16.1	3.6	8.9	6.7	-	-

^aSee Footnote a, Table 9.1 for detailed description of problems.

Other differences between males and females, worthy of special notice, are over "Student Indifference" (I), "Work-load" (IV) and "Communication" (V). Males not only were more numerous (60.7 per cent) than females (26.7 per cent) in indicating the relevance of problem I, but they were also more certain about its high importance. In the case of problem IV, more females (46.7 per cent) than males (33.9 per cent) indi-

cated its relevance to their own experience. In ranking this problem, however, both groups were very similar. As for problem V, approximately one-third of males (35.7 per cent) as well as females (33.3 per cent) included it in the list of problems, but both groups, more males (21.4 per cent) than females (6.7 per cent), ranked it of low importance. The proportions of males and females ranking it important, though much smaller than the proportions considering it not important, were approximately the same.

To conclude, males differed from females in that they gave high importance to "Student indifference", and "institutional problem". Females differed from males in that they, contrary to males, gave highest importance to "personal" problems. Finally, "Communication" was regarded less important as a problem by males than females. On the other problems, small differences notwithstanding, males and females tend to be similar.

Age

Age factor seems to influence the perception and importance of problems considerably (Table 9.3). Noticeable differences can be observed especially in relation to "Loneliness" (II), "Work-load" (IV), "Communication" (V), "Parents and Public" attitudes (VI), and "Teaching Methods" (VII). Fewer in the older group (32.3 per cent) recognized "Loneliness" as a problem than in the younger group (70.0 per cent). Younger respondents gave it a high importance (52.5 per cent) than older respondents (42.0 per cent).

In relation to problem (IV) the position taken by the two groups is reversed. Not only a larger proportion of the older group recognized excessive "Work-load" (IV) as a problem but they also ranked it high in importance. The younger respondents, on the other hand, tended to give it low importance. Problem V is given low importance by both groups, but a larger proportion of the younger (45.0 per cent) than the older group (22.6 per cent) admitted it as a problem in their experience. Problem VI appears to be less relevant and also less important for younger than older respondents.⁵ On the other hand, "Teaching Methods" (VII) were considered more relevant to their experience by older respondents but were ranked low in importance by both groups.

TABLE 9.3

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION AND RANKING OF PROBLEMS PERCEIVED IN ALBERTA SITUATION BY INDIAN TEACHERS BY AGE OF RESPONDENT^a

Code for Problems	AGE 35 Years or Under			Over 35 Years		
	"Yes" n ₁ = 40 Responses	IMPORTANCE		"Yes" n ₂ = 31 Responses	IMPORTANCE	
		High	Low		High	Low
I	52.5	52.5	10.0	54.5	42.0	12.9
II	70.0	37.5	17.5	32.3	13.0	19.3
III	45.0	20.0	20.0	45.2	29.1	12.9
IV	27.5	5.0	7.5	48.4	19.4	13.0
V	45.0	20.0	25.0	22.6	3.2	9.7
VI	17.5	2.5	7.5	29.0	12.9	5.0
VII	7.5	-	6.4	22.6	6.5	9.7

^aSee Footnote a, Table 9.1 for detailed description of problems.

⁵This would suggest that younger respondents differed somewhat in their own role perception than older

In summary, both groups considered "Student Indifference" (I) the most relevant of all problems and attached high importance to it. The younger group tended to emphasize its importance somewhat more than the older group. In the area of personal problems, the younger respondents appeared to be bothered more by loneliness while the older respondents had complaints about climate and, perhaps, food.

Intercultural Experience

Intercultural experience, generally speaking, does not appear to have an important influence over respondents' perception of problems (Table 9.4). On problems pertaining to "Student Indifference" (I) and "Loneliness" (II) respondents with and without intercultural experience are very similar. Both groups considered these two problems highly relevant. The culturally experienced group, however, assigned high importance to problem I while the inexperienced group was sharply divided over this. Both groups assigned high importance to problem II. Another consistency in the perception of both groups is evident in their responses to the problem of "Teaching Methods" (VII). Both groups perceived it neither relevant nor important, although the inexperienced group mentioned its relevance slightly more often than the culturally experienced group.

respondents. Could it be that the two groups subscribe to different sets of values in relation to community-school relations? Compare George S. Spindler, "Education in a Transforming American Culture", Harvard Educational Review 25 (Summer 1955), 145-156.

TABLE 9.4

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION AND RANKING OF PROBLEMS PERCEIVED IN ALBERTA SITUATION BY INDIAN TEACHERS BY PREVIOUS INTERCULTURAL EXPERIENCE OF RESPONDENT^a

Previous Intercultural Experience	YES $n_1 = 30$	NO $n_2 = 41$				
Code for Problems	"Yes" Responses	IMPORTANCE		"Yes" Responses	IMPORTANCE	
		High	Low		High	Low
I	56.6	46.6	16.6	51.2	48.7	47.2
II	53.3	30.0	20.0	53.6	24.4	17.0
III	36.6	30.0	10.0	51.2	19.2	21.9
IV	40.0	6.6	16.6	34.1	14.6	4.8
V	30.0	13.3	23.3	39.0	12.1	14.6
VI	33.3	13.3	10.0	14.6	2.4	4.8
VII	10.0	3.3	6.6	17.0	2.4	3.7

^aSee Footnote a, Table 9.1 for detailed description of problems.

The two groups, one with and the other without intercultural experience, differ in their attitudes to problems of "Canadian Climate and Food" (III), "Work-load" (IV), "Communication" (V), and "Parents and Public" attitude (VI). A higher proportion of inexperienced (51.2 per cent) than the experienced group (36.6 per cent) admitted the relevance of problem III though they also attached a lower importance to this problem. The data on problem III further indicate that the inexperienced group was divided, while the experienced group was quite definite over the question of assigning importance to it. Problem IV, although considered more relevant by

interculturally experienced teachers (40.0 compared to 34.0 per cent), is given high importance by the group without intercultural experience (14.6 per cent) and low importance by the other (16.6 per cent). The experienced group reported V as a problem less often (30 per cent) than the culturally inexperienced group (39 per cent) and they also saw this as a less important problem than the inexperienced group. "Parents and Public" (VI) attitude was considered more relevant as well as more important by the culturally experienced than the inexperienced respondents.

To conclude, it may be said, that these two groups are more alike than not. However, the experienced respondents are consistently more definite about the importance of the problems they perceive. Inexperienced teachers show ambiguity in evaluating the importance of the problems, except for the problem of work load, where inexperienced and experienced teachers perceive importance oppositely.

Religious Background

There are very noticeable differences in both perceptions and ranking of problems (Table 9.5). The outstanding consistency in perception common to all faiths was the high importance as well as relevance assigned to I, "Student Indifference". Beyond this there is much diversity in assigning relevance and importance to problems. For II, "Loneliness", Sikhs and Hindus both perceive this as relevant more often than Christians, but all faiths see this as of high importance

TABLE 9.5

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION AND RANKING OF PROBLEMS PERCEIVED IN ALBERTA SITUATION BY INDIAN TEACHERS BY RELIGIOUS BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENT^a

RELIGION	Sikhs $n_1 = 31$	Hindus $n_2 = 23$	Christians $n_3 = 17$						
Code for "Yes" Problems	Responses	"Yes" Responses	"Yes" Responses						
	IMPORTANCE High	IMPORTANCE Low	IMPORTANCE High						
	Low	High	Low						
I	64.5	51.6	19.3	43.4	47.8	4.3	47.0	47.0	5.9
II	61.2	32.2	22.5	56.5	26.0	17.3	35.2	17.6	11.7
III	64.5	32.2	29.0	21.7	13.0	4.3	41.1	23.5	11.7
IV	35.4	3.2	9.6	21.7	4.3	8.6	58.8	29.4	11.7
V	48.3	25.8	19.3	34.7	4.3	21.7	11.7	-	11.7
VI	12.9	6.4	3.2	21.7	4.3	8.6	41.1	11.7	11.7
VII	12.9	3.2	3.2	8.6	4.3	8.6	23.5	5.9	11.7

^aSee Footnote a, Table 9.1 for detailed description of problems.

more often than of low importance. Sikhs (64.5 per cent) report III "Canadian Climate and Food" as a relevant factor more often than Christians (41.1 per cent) and Hindus (21.7 per cent). Sikhs are more divided in the importance of this problem than both Christians and Hindus, though fewer Christians and Hindus said anything about importance. On the problem of "Work-load"(IV), Christians gave a significantly higher response than the other groups. The few Sikhs and Hindus who ranked this problem rated it of low importance. On the other hand, 29.4 per cent of the Christians gave it high importance. As to the problem of "Communication" (V), Sikhs regarded it as relatively important, while Hindus and Christians gave it low importance. Problem V "Parents and Public" attitude, was reported by Christians (41.1 per cent) much more frequently than by the Sikhs (12.9 per cent) and Hindus (21.7 per cent). At the same time, only a small proportion of respondents ranked this problem as either important or unimportant. A similar response pattern is found for "Teaching Methods" (VII).

Distance of Community from Edmonton/Calgary

Data in Table 9.6 indicate that the "remoteness" or "nearness" of the communities in which the respondents were teaching has some influence on the way Indian teachers perceived their problems and assigned them relative importance. This statement applies more to the first four problems than to the last three given in the Table. A higher proportion (63.4 per cent) of respondents from "Near" communities than

those (40.0 per cent) from "Distant" ones recognized "Student Indifference" (I) as a problem.⁶ They also seemed to rank it higher in importance than the respondents from "Distant" communities. On the other hand, 60 per cent of respondents from "Distant" communities as compared to 48.7 per cent from "Near" ones reported the problem of "Loneliness" (II). The

TABLE 9.6

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION AND RANKING OF PROBLEMS PERCEIVED IN ALBERTA SITUATION BY INDIAN TEACHERS BY DISTANCE OF COMMUNITY FROM EDMONTON/CALGARY WHERE RESPONDENT TAUGHT

Distance of Community	150 Miles or Less $n_1 = 41$			Over 150 Miles $n_2 = 30$		
Code ^a for Problems	"Yes" Responses	IMPORTANCE High Low		"Yes" Responses	IMPORTANCE High Low	
I	63.4	58.5	12.1	40.0	33.3	10.0
II	48.7	26.8	19.5	60.0	26.6	16.6
III	41.4	21.9	19.5	50.0	26.6	13.3
IV	43.9	12.1	7.3	26.6	10.0	13.3
V	39.0	12.1	19.5	30.0	13.3	16.6
VI	24.3	7.3	7.3	20.0	6.7	6.7
VII	14.6	2.4	7.3	13.3	3.3	6.7

^aSee Footnote a, Table 9.1 for detailed description of problems.

two groups were virtually the same in assigning importance to Problem II, with high importance receiving the greater emphasis. Each of the gorups, however, gave problem II consi-

⁶In discussing the data in Table 9.6, communities "150 miles or less", from Edmonton/Calgary are referred to as "Near" communities. Those "over 150 miles" from Edmonton/Calgary are called "Distant" communities.

derably less importance than problem I. "Distantness", appears to be related to the problem of "Canadian Climate and Food" also. Fifty per cent of respondents in the "Distant" communities and only 41.4 per cent from "Near" communities reported problem III as relevant to their experience. Moreover, respondents from "Distant" communities ranked it highly important in clearer terms than respondents from "Near" communities. "Work-load" (IV) appeared to be a more salient problem for those from "Near" communities than for respondents from "Distant" places. In neither group was there a large proportion who ranked this problem as important or unimportant. The problems of "Communication" (V), "Parents and Public" attitude (VI) and "Teaching methods" (VII) were ranked by both the "Near" and "Distant" groups very low in importance, though the "Near" group referred to V and VI as problems more often than the "Distant" respondents.

In summary, the respondents classified into groups by distance of community differed from one another with respect to the importance of the set of first four problems and largely agreed with respect to the importance of the set of last three. It can be stated that the respondents from the "Near" communities tended to emphasize the importance of institutional problems while those from the "Distant" communities tended to stress the importance of the environmental or personal problems of climate and food.

Kind of Community

The kind of community where respondents were teaching also appears to have some relation to the problems they experienced (Table 9.7). There is some measure of agreement between the "Urban" group and the "Rural" group on the relevance on all problems except problem IV, "Work-load".⁷ This appears more relevant in cities and towns. On five problems the proportions of persons assigning a low importance are virtually the same for the two categories of respondents, but for high importance there is close similarity for only two of the problems. In other words, there is more agreement in what isn't than in what is, important.

TABLE 9.7

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION AND RANKING OF PROBLEMS PERCEIVED IN ALBERTA SITUATION BY INDIAN TEACHERS BY KIND OF COMMUNITY IN WHICH RESPONDENT TAUGHT^a

<u>Kind of Community</u>	CITY OR TOWN $n_1 = 39$			VILLAGE OR OTHERS $n_2 = 32$		
Code for Problems	"Yes" Responses	IMPORTANCE		"Yes" Responses	IMPORTANCE	
		High	Low		High	Low
I	51.2	41.0	10.2	56.2	56.2	12.5
II	56.3	25.6	17.9	50.0	28.1	18.7
III	43.6	20.5	20.5	46.8	28.1	12.5
IV	48.7	15.3	10.2	21.8	3.1	9.3
V	33.3	15.3	15.3	37.5	9.3	21.8
VI	23.1	5.1	7.6	21.8	9.3	6.3
VII	12.8	2.5	7.6	15.6	3.1	6.3

^aSee Footnote a, Table 9.1 for detailed description of problems.

⁷For purposes of analysis in this chapter, respondents who were teaching in "cities or towns" are designated as "Urban", while those in "villages or others" are called "Rural".

It can be seen that the "Rural" and the "Urban" subgroups agreed on the high importance of "Student Indifference" (I) but the "Rural" group considered it much more so than the "Urban" group. The problem of student indiscipline and indifference would appear to be perceived more serious in "Rural" areas than in "Urban" areas. On the problem of "Loneliness" (II), there was a fair degree of agreement between the two groups of respondents. On the problem of "Canadian Climate and Food" (III), however, the "Rural" group was more clearly certain about its high importance than the "Urban" group who were evenly divided in their views. Again, "Work-load" (IV) was a more important and relevant problem for respondents from cities and towns than for those from the villages and other places. One more problem is worthy of special notice here. The problem of "Communication" (V) was regarded of lower importance by "Rural" respondents, though a greater proportion said it was relevant. The "Urban" respondents, on the other hand, were sharply divided on the same issue. The last two problems of "Parents and public" attitude (VI) and "Teaching Methods" (VII) were considered relevant by roughly equal, though small proportions, in each group. The problem of different "Teaching Methods" was given low importance by both the groups, while the problem of "Parents and Public" attitude was indicated as of somewhat higher importance by the "Rural" group, while the "Urban" group gave it low importance. The low proportion of responses to these two problems, VI and VII, suggest their lack of significance compared

to other problems for both "Rural" and "Urban" teachers.

Grade-Level of Teaching

From the general response pattern (Table 9.8) one can see that the set of first four problems had more relevance for the Senior High school teachers than for the Junior High or Elementary school teachers. The Senior High school teachers also considered them of higher importance than the Junior High or Elementary school teachers. A deviation from the general observed pattern in relation to the problem of "Loneliness" (II) should be noted in the case of Junior High and Elementary school teachers. They clearly

TABLE 9.8

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION AND RANKING OF PROBLEMS PERVEIVED IN ALBERTA SITUATION BY INDIAN TEACHERS BY GRADE-LEVEL OF TEACHING OF RESPONDENT^a

Grade Level	Senior High School $n_1 = 49$			Jr. High and Elem. School $n_2 = 22$		
Code for Problems	"Yes" Responses	IMPORTANCE High Low		"Yes" Responses	IMPORTANCE High Low	
I	55.1	48.9	8.1	50.0	45.4	13.6
II	57.1	34.6	18.3	45.4	9.1	18.2
III	48.9	28.5	18.3	36.3	13.6	13.6
IV	40.8	14.2	12.2	27.2	4.5	4.5
V	32.6	10.2	18.3	40.9	18.2	18.2
VI	20.4	8.1	6.1	27.2	4.5	9.1
VII	12.2	2.0	8.1	18.2	4.5	4.5

^aSee Footnote a, Table 9.1 for detailed description of problems.

rated problem II low in importance, a finding which suggests the hypothesis that the Senior High school may be a lonelier professional environment than the Junior High and Elementary schools.

With respect to problems V, VI and VII a larger proportion of Junior and Elementary school teachers perceived them as relevant. It is noteworthy that Junior High and Elementary school teachers are equally divided in proportions assigning high and low importance to "Communication" (V), while a larger proportion of Senior High school teachers say it is of low importance. Differences in the importance assigned problems VI and VII are not of consequence in view of the very small proportion of teachers who ranked these problems.

School Size

From Table 9.9 it would appear that for teachers of smaller schools (14 or fewer rooms) the problems teachers perceived have a consistent pattern in terms of this relevance. This is indicated by the descending order of proportions of "Yes" responses of this group to the seven problems. There is not the same pattern in responses from teachers of larger schools, which indicates problems do differ by size of school. Small school teachers are more definite than those of large schools in seeing "Student Indifference" (I) as relevant and important. While more than half of both sets of teachers see "Loneliness" (II) as relevant, more large school teachers state this is highly important, while more small school teachers see it

as of low importance. On the other hand, small school teachers perceive the greater relevance and importance of "Canadian Climate and Food" (III) and "Work-load" (IV) as compared to teachers from large schools. Almost complete agreement is noticeable on the problem of "Communication" (V). Although 35 per cent of both groups recognized the problem, both show a tendency to rank it low in importance. It may be pointed out that "Parents and Public" attitude (VI) is shown as a problem slightly more often in small schools, but slightly more important in large schools. The problem of "Teaching Methods" (VI), however, appears to be related to the school size in the frequency with which it is regarded as a problem, (18.9 per cent in small schools, 8.8 in large schools), though it was not considered important by either group.

TABLE 9.9

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION AND RANKING OF PROBLEMS PERCEIVED IN ABLERTA SITUATION BY INDIAN TEACHERS BY SIZE OF SCHOOL IN WHICH RESPONDENT TAUGHT^a

School Size	14 or Fewer Rooms $n_1 = 37$			15 or More Rooms $n_2 = 34$		
	"Yes" Responses	IMPORTANCE		"Yes" Responses	IMPORTANCE	
Code of Problems		High	Low		High	Low
I	62.1	51.3	18.9	44.1	44.1	2.9
II	51.3	18.9	24.3	55.8	35.2	11.7
III	48.6	29.7	16.2	41.1	17.6	17.6
IV	40.5	18.9	13.5	32.3	2.9	5.8
V	35.1	13.5	18.9	35.2	11.7	17.6
VI	24.3	5.4	8.1	20.5	8.8	5.8
VII	18.9	5.4	8.1	8.8	-	5.8

^aSee Footnote a, Table 9.1 for detailed description of problems.

Table 9.10 summarizes the analysis on the respondents' perception of problems. An attempt is made to present the data such that the primacy of the problems in the respondents' perception and evidence of the relevance of the variables used in the analysis can at once be seen. The totals of (X) signs at the bottom of each of the seven columns indicate that problems of "Student Indifference" (I) and "Excessive Workload" (IV) are of the first order of relevance and importance. Problems of "Loneliness" (II), and "Canadian Climate and Food" (III) are of the second order in terms of their primacy in respondents' perception. In the third place in this respect are problems of "Communication" (V) and "Parents and Public" attitude (IV). The problem of differences in "Teaching Methods" (VII) is considered the least important of all. The totals of (X) signs on the right-hand side of the Table indicate that age and religion variables are most frequently associated with the perception of problems. The second order variables in this respect are sex, previous intercultural experience, grade level of teaching and school size. The last two variables, it should be noted, include both the institutional variables used. The situational variables, distance of community from Edmonton or Calgary and type of community, would appear to be least important in the perception of problems by Indian teachers. This brings the analysis of data on respondents perception of problems to an end. The future plans and aspirations of the respondents with regard to professional and academic advancement are dealt with next.

TABLE 9.10

SUMMARY OF RELATIONSHIPS FOUND BETWEEN THE PROBLEMS PERCEIVED
BY RESPONDENTS AND EIGHT VARIABLES USED IN ANALYSIS^a

Code of Problems ^b	I		II		III		IV		V		VI		VII		No. of Problems Involved	Evidence of Difference in Per-ception	
	R	I	R	I	R	I	R	I	R	I	R	I	R	I			
Variables																	
Sex	X	X	-	-	X	X	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	4	7	
Age	-	X	X	X	-	-	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	-	5	10
Inter-cultural Experience	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	X	-	-	X	X	-	-	2	6	
Religion	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	-	X	-	6	12	
Distance of Community	X	X	X	-	-	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	4	
Type of Community	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	3	
Grade-level	-	-	X	X	X	X	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	-	4	6	
School Size	X	X	-	X	-	X	-	X	-	-	-	-	X	-	2	6	
No. of Variables Involved	7		4		5		5		3		2		-				
Evidence of the Relevance of Variables	11		8		9		11		6		6		3				

^aIf the subgroups in terms of any particular variable differed by 10 or more percentage points in proportions assigning relevance (R) or importance (I) to a problem, then the particular variable was judged as associated with the problem. This relationship is indicated by (X) under columns of "R" and "I". If the percentage difference was less than 10 points, relationship was assumed not to exist and is indicated by (-). ^bFor information on code of problems see, Table 9.1, footnote a.

Future Plans and Aspirations

The data in the last chapter and in Chapter V indicated that some of the respondents were already socially upwardly mobile prior to leaving for Canada and almost all were seeking avenues for upward mobility through their migration to Canada. The motivations to migration have suggested that migration to Canada represents a concrete form of upward mobility for most respondents. School teaching may or may not be considered a satisfactory level of professional work by Indian teachers. It is hypothesized that teachers who express a "life-long" commitment to teaching as a profession will be the ones who perceive teaching as a satisfying occupation in terms of their occupational aspirations.

Tables 9.11 and 9.12 present data classified by sex and age on the life-long commitment of Indian teachers to the teaching profession.

TABLE 9.11

"LIFE-LONG" COMMITMENT OF INDIAN TEACHERS TO TEACHING PROFESSION
BY SEX OF RESPONDENT

Percentage Response				
Sex	YES	NO	DON'T KNOW	TOTAL
Males $n_1 = 56$	64.3	5.4	30.4	99.9
Females $n_2 = 15$	53.3	13.3	33.3	99.9
Total N = 71	62.0	7.0	31.0	100.0

TABLE 9.12

"LIFE-LONG" COMMITMENT OF INDIAN TEACHERS TO TEACHING PROFESSION
BY AGE OF RESPONDENT

Percentage Response Age	YES	NO	DON'T KNOW	TOTAL
35 Years or Under $n_1 = 40$	60	2.5	37.5	100.0
Over 35 Years $n_2 = 31$	64.5	12.9	22.6	100.0
Total N = 71	62.0	7.0	31.0	100.0

Sixty-two per cent of the respondents would stay in teaching as a "life-long" occupation. Thirty-one per cent were not sure about it as indicated by the "Don't Know" replies. Only a very small proportion (7.0 per cent) thought teaching was not the occupation they would like to stay in for their whole lifetime. Males and females showed slight differences as is indicated by the fact that compared to approximately two-thirds (64.3 per cent) of males, only half (53.3 per cent) of the females expressed their positive intention to stay in teaching. The differences, due to the age factor, in commitment to stay in the profession are even smaller especially with reference to "Yes" responses. The noticeably larger proportion (37.5 per cent) of the younger group in the "Don't Know" category of responses as compared to that of the older group would indicate a stronger tendency among younger people to wait for some time before finally committing themselves

to teaching. For them, teaching would appear to be only an avenue for further upward mobility.

Table 9.13 and 9.14 present data regarding the future plans of Indian teachers with respect to their stay in the Alberta teaching force. Only a minority of the respondents (40.8 per cent) indicated that they intended to stay in Alberta as teachers. Approximately one-half (47.9 per cent) were undecided and 11.3 per cent were definite about not staying in Alberta as teachers.

TABLE 9.13

INDIAN TEACHERS' PLANS FOR STAYING IN THE ALBERTA TEACHING FORCE BY SEX OF RESPONDENT

Percentage Responses	YES	NO	UNDECIDED	TOTAL
Sex				
Male $n_1 = 56$	44.6	8.9	46.4	99.9
Female $n_2 = 15$	26.6	20.0	53.3	99.9
Total $N = 71$	40.8	11.3	47.9	100.0

TABLE 9.14

INDIAN TEACHERS' PLANS FOR STAYING IN THE ALBERTA TEACHING FORCE BY AGE OF RESPONDENT

Percentage Response	YES	NO	UNDECIDED	TOTAL
Age				
35 Years or Under $n_1 = 40$	32.5	12.5	55.0	100.0
Over 35 Years $n_2 = 31$	51.6	9.7	38.7	100.0
Total $N = 71$	40.8	11.3	47.9	100.0

Less than half (44.6 per cent) of the males and only one-quarter (26.6 per cent) of the females expressed the intention of staying. The proportion of those who did not intend to stay or were undecided was much higher among the females than among the males. Age seems to have an important influence on the future plans of respondents with respect to staying in Alberta. One-third of the younger group (32.5 per cent) and 51.6 per cent of the older group intended to stay. The difference is quite noticeable. Similarly while more than half (55.0 per cent) of the younger respondents were undecided about their future plans only 38.7 per cent of the older respondents were in that position.

Since Indian teachers formed a distinct and visible cultural group in the teaching profession in Alberta, in relation to their future plans it was thought appropriate to ask them about the existance of equality of opportunity for them in the professional sphere. Data in Tables 9.15 and 9.16 indicate that half of them (50.7 per cent) felt that they enjoyed equality of opportunity in their relation to other Alberta teachers. About one-fifth (19.7 per cent) felt it did not exist while approximately one-third (29.6 per cent) did not know if it did or did not.

Sex and age of respondents seem to have important influence on the perception of the equality of opportunity by respondents (Tables 9.15 and 9.16). It is noteworthy

TABLE 9.15

INDIAN TEACHERS' PERCEPTION OF EQUALITY OF OPPORTUNITY FOR PROFESSIONAL ADVANCEMENT IN ALBERTA BY SEX OF RESPONDENT

Percentage Response	YES	NO	DON'T KNOW	TOTAL
Sex				
Male $n_1 = 56$	44.6	19.6	35.7	99.9
Female $n_2 = 15$	73.3	20.0	6.7	100.0
Total $N = 71$	50.7	19.7	29.6	100.0

TABLE 9.16

INDIAN TEACHERS' PERCEPTION OF EQUALITY OF OPPORTUNITY FOR PROFESSIONAL ADVANCEMENT IN ALBERTA BY AGE OF RESPONDENT

Percentage Response	YES	NO	DON'T KNOW	TOTAL
Age				
35 Years or Under $n_1 = 40$	42.5	22.5	35	100.0
Over 35 Years $n_2 = 31$	61.3	16.1	22.6	100.0
Total $N = 71$	50.7	19.7	29.6	100.0

that whereas less than half (44.6 per cent) of the males perceived equality of opportunity in working in Alberta, approximately three-quarters (73.5 per cent) of females did so. Again, a noticeably smaller proportion (42.5 per cent) of younger respondents than of older respondents (61.3 per cent) thought there was equality of opportunity in Alberta. Is it probable that the younger males, with their higher aspirations for upward mobility, find the situation in the profession highly competitive for better positions

and for more desirable centres and interpret their failure to get to these positions in terms of lack of equal opportunity? The information on the ecological distribution of Indian teachers tends to indicate that they were working in relatively disadvantaged and unattractive regions of the province. One wonders if it is the deep feeling of insecurity of the upwardly mobile frequently alluded to in socio-psychological literature or the objective situation that influenced the perception of the younger respondents. Perhaps, both of these factors have some relation to it.

Plans for further education of the respondents reveal some interesting facts about the future aspirations of Indian teachers.

Data in Tables 9.17 and 9.18 indicate that about half (47.9 per cent) of the respondents have definite plans for further education. It should be remembered here that the most frequently mentioned and most important motivation to migration to Canada perceived by the respondents was "Better opportunities" for professional and academic advancement.

TABLE 9.17

PLANS OF INDIAN TEACHERS FOR FURTHER EDUCATION BY SEX OF RESPONDENT

Percentage of Response	YES	NO	DON'T KNOW	TOTAL
Sex				
Male $n_1 = 56$	52.0	23.2	26.8	100.0
Female $n_2 = 15$	40.0	33.3	26.7	100.0
Total $N = 71$	47.9	25.4	26.7	100.0

TABLE 9.18

PLANS OF INDIAN TEACHERS FOR FURTHER EDUCATION BY AGE OF RESPONDENT

Percentage of Response				
Age	YES	NO	DON'T	TOTAL
35 Years or Under $n_1 = 41$	62.5	12.5	25.0	100.0
Over 35 Years $n_2 = 30$	29.0	41.9	29.0	99.9
Total N = 71	47.9	25.4	26.7	100.0

Sex and age of respondents appear related to their plans for further education. More males (52.0 per cent) than females (40.0 per cent) reported plans for further higher education. Contrarily, a larger proportion (33.3 per cent) of females compared to that (23.2 per cent) of males did not anticipate taking any further education. With regard to age, there is a noticeable difference between the younger respondents and the older respondents in terms of plans for further education. Only 29 per cent of older respondents as compared to 62.5 per cent of younger respondents had definite plans for further education. The large difference in the proportions of "No" responses between the two groups also indicates the same trend. Both age groups, however, have about the same proportions of undecided persons, 25 and 29 per cent.

A large proportion (62 per cent) of respondents were working towards at least some degree at the time of the survey. Roughly one-third (33.8 per cent) were working for a B. Ed.

or some other undergraduate degree while 28.2 per cent were working for some graduate degree. Approximately forty per cent (39.4 per cent) of the respondents would ultimately like to have a Ph.D. degree.

In terms of professional advancement, most of them set their goals very high. More than one-third (36.6 per cent) were aspiring to become university professors, 8.4 per cent superintendents of schools or Junior college lecturers, 12.7 per cent school principals and 26.8 per cent Senior High school teachers. Only a small fraction, about 10 per cent, would like to work in Elementary or Junior High schools.

The preceding account of the educational and professional aspirations of Indian teachers indicates that most of them possess a high level of ambition and aspiration. The younger respondents, quite expectedly, entertain higher hopes and aspirations. Whether or not they will be able to translate their aspirations into concrete achievements is not the question the present study is designed to answer. The high level of aspirations, however, among the respondents, whether it is hinged on reality or not, is highly relevant to the understanding of their motivation to migration to Canada. Perhaps the reasons for the migration of professional people from one country to another are located in the unfulfilled aspirations of such individuals.

Finally, the respondents were asked what reason they would consider relevant and most compelling in their decision, if they were to make one, to return to India. Reasons in

order of their high relevance to the decision to return were, "Call of the family", "Contribution of experiences acquired abroad to India's development", "To retire after teaching" "to be in the cultural milieu of India", "to take a position of responsibility in Indian education", and "to be with parents in their old age".⁷ Two reasons, "contributions of experience abroad to India's development", and "to be with parents in their old age", were ranked highest in importance. Reasons ranked second highest in importance were "to take a position of responsibility in Indian education" and "to be in the cultural milieu of India". The data on motivations in the preceding chapter showed that "patriotic motive" was considered by respondents of low importance in their decision to migrate. In the light of this, it is interesting to observe that "contribution of experiences acquired abroad to India's development" has been ranked highest in importance among the reasons to return to India. In the absence of national social security system for the aged in India, and given the different nature of the structure of the Indian family, the high importance given to the reasons relating to parents should not be surprising.

⁷The largest and smallest proportions of responses indicating the relevance of the reasons given for return to India were 31 per cent and 21 per cent respectively. Twenty-one per cent of the respondents did not respond to the question on reasons at all.

Summary

The analysis of data on the perception of problems has already been summarized in the preceding pages. It should suffice to say here, therefore, that the two problems thought most important by the respondents appeared to be "Student Indifference" (I) and "Work-load" (IV) while of the variables used, the two found most important were age and religion of respondents.

Regarding the future plans and aspirations of the respondents it can be concluded that, generally speaking, the respondents form a group with high levels of aspiration for occupational and social mobility. The younger respondents tended to be more ambitious in their future plans and were less committed to teaching at the school level. A large proportion of the respondents would like to attain higher education which would help them to move in the status hierarchy in the teaching profession. A substantial number would like to become administrators in the field of education but by far the largest number would ultimately like to become university professors. Most of the Indians would probably stay in Alberta unless they can make a move up in the status hierarchy by moving out of Alberta. It can be stated that the respondents in the present study seem to have their first commitment "to make it" in terms of upward mobility. In this respect they would appear to be very much like most North Americans. They would not return home unless it were to care for their aging parents or to take up positions of

responsibility in India--positions in which they could contribute their newly learned skills and ideas.

The other members of the committee, however, were not so sure. They felt that the students who had been trained in the United States and who had returned to India were not yet ready to take on the responsibility of running the country. They felt that the students who had been trained in the United States were not yet ready to take on the responsibility of running the country. They felt that the students who had been trained in the United States were not yet ready to take on the responsibility of running the country.

The committee was divided on this issue. Some felt that the students who had been trained in the United States were not yet ready to take on the responsibility of running the country. They felt that the students who had been trained in the United States were not yet ready to take on the responsibility of running the country. They felt that the students who had been trained in the United States were not yet ready to take on the responsibility of running the country.

The committee was divided on this issue. Some felt that the students who had been trained in the United States were not yet ready to take on the responsibility of running the country. They felt that the students who had been trained in the United States were not yet ready to take on the responsibility of running the country. They felt that the students who had been trained in the United States were not yet ready to take on the responsibility of running the country.

CHAPTER X

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The major purpose of this survey was the investigation of the motivations to migration of Indian teachers to Canada and Alberta, problems perceived by them essentially in the professional and institutional spheres of work, and the main features of their institutional integration and structural location in the Alberta Education System. The study was intended to be descriptive and formulative. For this reason no specific hypotheses relating to the broad areas outlined above were tested.

The subjects in the present study were 71 immigrant teachers from India who had been teaching in Alberta for varying lengths of time, some starting as early as 1958, at the time of the collection of data, in June and July of 1965. These teachers virtually formed the total population of Indian teachers. The primary instrument used in the collection of data was a seven-page questionnaire (see, Appendix A). Some information was also collected by personal interviews and from the records of the Alberta Teachers' Association and the Alberta Department of Education.

Summary of Findings

The findings of the study fall under three major headings. First, those pertaining to the ecology and background and professional characteristics of the Indian teachers; second, those relating to certification in Alberta of teachers from India;

and finally, those regarding the motivations to migration, perceptions of problems and future plans.

Regarding findings under the first heading, it was found that the majority of Indian teachers were teaching in areas of the "pioneer fringe" of Alberta. They tended to be concentrated in small towns and other communities north of the 53.5° parallel. They were almost exclusively employed in economically marginal school systems and were conspicuously absent from the cities (8.5 per cent) where majority of Alberta's population (55.6 per cent) lives. More than two-thirds (69.0 per cent) of them were teaching 100 or more miles away from Edmonton/Calgary.

The respondents were predominantly male and married. Their median age was 34 years. They tended to have urban and middle or upper social class origins in India. More females than males tended to have upper class origins, urban backgrounds and higher educational level of parents. More males than females tended to be socially mobile. Roughly 60 per cent of the respondents came from the Indian province of Punjab alone. The respondents included Sikhs (43.7 per cent), Hindus (32.4 per cent), Christians (22.5 per cent) and Muslims (1.4 per cent). Compared with the Alberta teaching force, the Indian teachers were younger, and had higher proportion of males and the married.

It was found that the majority of Indian teachers had four years of university training and about 10 years of

teaching experience. Most of them held Alberta professional teaching certificate and were Senior High school teachers. Again, a majority were teaching in relatively smaller schools (with 14 or fewer full-time teachers). The median salary for the group was approximately \$8,250. The females, in contrast with males, had considerably less education, had a median salary of about \$5,800, and were predominantly Elementary school teachers. In comparison with the Alberta teaching force, the respondents had more university training, longer teaching experience and higher median salary. With regard to structural location of respondents in the education system, compared to 26 per cent of the Alberta teachers, 69 per cent of Indian teachers were Senior High school teachers. Compared to 74 per cent of the Alberta teaching force working as Junior High or Elementary school teachers only 31 per cent of the respondents were doing so. Moreover, compared to roughly 14 per cent of the Alberta teachers about 17 per cent of the teachers were working in some sort of supervisory positions in the schools.

The second group of findings relate to the certification of Indian teachers in Alberta. Two issues that enter into the granting of Alberta teaching authority to Indian teachers are the evaluation of their university work done in India and their proficiency in spoken English. It was found that the Alberta certification authority has become more selective, especially since 1964, in issuing certificates to applicants from India. Indian applicants with degrees from

India that have "third-class" standing, unless this standing is subsequently improved in later work at a university, are no longer issued teaching certificates in Alberta. Moreover, proficiency in spoken English is much more strongly insisted upon as a condition for certification. Regarding the selection and taking of two required certification courses by each applicant who is issued an Alberta certificate, the Indian teachers generally agreed as to the need of these orientation courses for foreign teachers. But on the question of the kind of orientation required and kind of university courses most suited to give it, there was found a virtually complete divergence between the view of the respondents and the certification authority. According to the 1966 course assignment policy with regard to certification, immigrant teachers to Alberta are required to take, as a rule, Canadian History (370) and Educational Administration (461) at either of the two universities in Alberta. But the respondents perceived these courses least useful for orientation of new teachers to the Alberta School System. These courses were found to be the last on the list of courses recommended by the respondents for immigrant teachers from India. The courses that the respondents gave high preference were Methods courses, courses especially designed for Foreign Teachers and Speech Correction courses. Another important finding regarding certification was the fact that there was a noticeable discrepancy between the respondents' training in

terms of years of teacher education and the level at which they were certificated in Alberta. Despite the fact that 93 per cent of the respondents had more than three years of teacher education, the training that is required for professional certificate in Alberta, only 60 per cent held such certificates.

Furthermore, it was found that the reason mentioned most frequently by respondents for migrating to Alberta rather than some other province in Canada was the presence of friends or relatives in this province. But the two most important reasons for migrating to Alberta were the knowledge of the demand for teachers and the acceptability to Indian teachers of the certification requirements in this province. As to the sources of information that proved helpful in getting teaching positions in this province, the greatest importance was assigned to the educational journals.

The third group of findings pertain to the respondents' motivation to migration to Canada, perception of problems in Alberta situations and future plans. It was found that the most important motivations to migration were of the "pull" type. The two much more frequently mentioned motives and assigned noticeably higher importance than others were "Better opportunities" for further professional development and advanced education, and "Financial gain". Importance wise, all other motives that were mentioned as relevant, were relegated to much lower positions when compared with the two mentioned above. Variables like age, urban-rural back-

ground, social class origin, social mobility experience, and religion of the respondents were found associated with the prime motivations to migration. With regard to the motives, excepting "Better opportunities" and "Financial gain", religion was especially found to be associated with "Cultural marginality" as a motive in migration.

Regarding respondents' perception of problems in Alberta situations it was found that problems of "Student Indifference" (I) and "Excessive Work-load" (IV) were of the first order of relevance and importance to Indian teachers. Next in terms of relevance and importance to the respondents were the problems of "Loneliness" (II) and "Canadian Climate and Food" (III), both of them being personal and environmental factors not directly related to the institutional context. The problem of "Communication" (V) due to differences in accent and use of idiom, and "Parents and Public" (VI) attitude toward school and teachers were found to be given third place in importance by the respondents. When attention is focussed in the variables, it was found that age and religion of the respondents were importantly associated with the perception of problems. Of somewhat lesser importance were the factors of sex, previous intercultural experience, grade level of teaching and school size. It was also found that the distance from the large population centres and type of community were not noticeably associated with the perception of problems.

Regarding future plans it was found that the respondents

as a group had noticeably high levels of aspiration for occupational and social mobility. Age of respondents was found to be associated with the respondents' plans for staying in the Alberta teaching force, higher education, commitment to teaching at school level and higher aspirations regarding their ultimate occupational niche. The younger group perceived lack of equality of opportunity for Indian teachers in Alberta more than did the older members. Sex of respondents was also found related to the perception of equality of opportunity in Alberta school systems and plans for staying in Alberta teaching force.

Because of the relatively small number of Indian teachers in Alberta in 1964-65, a random sample was not drawn. On the other hand an effort was made to include in the present study every teacher from India known to be teaching in Alberta schools in 1964-65. The respondents, therefore, do not represent, in statistical language, a larger population about which generalizations can be made on the basis of the findings of the present study. Any statements or generalizations that appear in this part of the study should be treated relevant, strictly speaking, only to the teachers from India who were teaching in Alberta in 1964-65.

The findings of the study suggest the following conclusions:

Specific Conclusions

1. The teacher shortage in Alberta and the acceptability to teachers from India of teacher certification requirements were the two major factors in the Alberta situation which are related to the migration of Indian teachers to this province.
2. The teachers from India tended to fill in the teaching jobs in schools located in communities in the "backwoods" or pioneer fringe areas of Alberta. They have very small chance of competing successfully with Alberta teachers for the "more desirable" teaching jobs especially in terms of geographical location.
3. The Indian teachers were able to find teaching positions essentially in the economically marginal, underdeveloped and isolated areas of Alberta. But if the school size, type and distance of community, and economic wealth of the school systems are ignored, then the Indian teachers were holding teaching positions and were getting salaries which were commensurate with their professional training and experience.
4. The policy of certification of Indian teachers in Alberta is less than adequate. Difficulties lie especially in connection with the evaluation of University degrees obtained in India by the applicant teachers.
5. According to the perception of Indian teachers the certification courses assignment policy in Alberta

has not performed its intended function, i.e., the orientation of Indian teachers to the Alberta Education System. This issue merits further study.

6. The Indian teachers' motivations to migration are closely related to their unfulfilled but high aspirations for occupational and social mobility. Canada offered a strong attraction especially because of the wide opportunities for income, occupational and social mobility for professionals that exist in this country.
7. Motivations to migration to Canada for Indian teachers were essentially of the "pull" rather than "push" type.
8. The problems experienced by Indian teachers that were given greatest importance were related to the institutional sphere of their work. Particularly important was the problem of student indifference. These problems constitute a part of the general process of institutional integration into the norms, values and roles of the teaching profession in Alberta.
9. The Indian teachers in Alberta form a group highly committed to the values of upward mobility. Their retention in the Alberta teaching force would appear to depend upon whether opportunities for mobility are available inside or outside Alberta. It is probably premature to ask the question regarding their permanent stay in Alberta as teachers, in view of their short sojourn in the province.

General Conclusions

The integration of Indian teachers within the institutional set-up of the Alberta Public Education System reveals a specific pattern. In terms of the hierarchical structure of teaching positions the immigrant teachers from India have tended to integrate at the middle level, i.e., most of them have had teaching positions at the Senior High school level. In the ecological sense, however, their integration has taken place at the lowest level as indicated by their absence from cities and concentration in small, isolated, relatively poor and under-developed communities in the province. This bi-polar nature of their integration process is the most important feature of their institutional absorption in the Alberta System of Education.

In connection with the study of the process of institutional absorption of the respondents the most important variables are the age and religion of the respondents. Also quite relevant in this respect, however, are sex, and previous intercultural experience of the teachers, and school size and the grade-level of teaching.

Implications For Future Policy

The findings and conclusions of this study, especially those with regard to the certification of teachers, have important implications for future policy. It appears there is a need for reappraisal of the policy with regard to the evaluation of university degrees obtained in India by Indian applicants. Academic as well as practical considerations

justify such a decision. If Indian teachers are recognized as a source of future teacher supply then the selection policies need to be re-examined in the light of the findings of this study.

Reappraisal of the course assignment policy for certification of Indian teachers in Alberta is also in need of review. The primary purpose of the certification courses would appear to be the orientation of foreign teachers to the Alberta System of Education. It seems from this study the courses now required do not meet the needs of Indian teachers.

Economically marginal and culturally isolated Alberta communities have been getting teachers from India to teach in their schools. Drop-out rates are likely to be high and interest in school work somewhat low in such areas. This seems to have implications for the integration of Indian teachers into Alberta schools. The frustrations of teaching in such a school setting, especially for newly arrived foreign teachers who almost completely lack the cultural background necessary to understand the problems in such schools, can be great. It has implications not only for the work of the students and teachers involved alone but also for how the Indian teachers are judged in their professional work by the inspection staff of the Alberta Department of Education. Such judgements, in turn, are related to the formulation of future certification policies. The present state of affairs causes difficulties both for the Indian teachers and the students who are already

somewhat culturally deprived.

Suggested Hypotheses

On the basis of the findings and conclusions of the present study the following specific hypotheses are suggested for future studies in the sociology of immigrant professionals, especially immigrant teachers in Alberta.

1. There will be a relationship between the status of teachers (native or immigrant) and their ecological distribution in Alberta during the first few years of the teacher's arrival.
2. There will be a relationship between the status (native or immigrant) of teachers and their structural location in the Alberta System of Education.
3. The status of teachers (native or immigrant) will be related to their levels of occupational aspirations.
4. The cultural background of immigrant teachers will be related to the process of their institutional absorption in the Alberta System of Education.
5. The cultural background of immigrant teachers will be related to their perception of problems in Alberta situations.
6. The cultural background of immigrant teachers will be related to their perceptions of problems in the institutional sphere of their work.
7. The sex, age, social class background, urban-rural origin, social mobility and religion will be related

to the motivations for migration of immigrant teachers and other professional workers in general.

8. The relationship between age and religion of immigrant professionals and their motivations to migration will be stronger than that between sex, social class background, urban-rural origin, social mobility and the motivations.
9. The difficulties in the process of integration into the host society of immigrants will be related, in a qualitative sense, with the type of migrants (professional or non-professional).
10. The degree of success as teachers of immigrant teachers depends on the ecological setting of community in which they find teaching positions on their migration to the host society. This should, perhaps, be stated as a null hypothesis.
11. The cultural or racial background of immigrant teachers by itself will have no relationship to the level at which they are integrated into the Alberta educational system.
12. The cultural background of the immigrant teachers will be related to their perception of orientation required to facilitate their integration into Alberta Educational System.

It is finally suggested that the above hypotheses and findings from this study could be placed profitably in a broader

theoretical framework, particularly the framework of social system theory. This would facilitate a structural - functional analysis of the Indian teachers as a professional group in relation to the Alberta System of Education, Alberta communities and Alberta society generally.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BOOKS

- Beals, R. L. and N. D. Humphry. No Frontiers to Learning: The Mexican Students in the United States. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press. 1957.
- Becker, Howard, et al. Boys in White: Student Culture in Medical School. University of Chicago Press, 1961.
- Bendix, Reinhard. Weber, Max: An Intellectual Portrait. New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1960
- Berelson, B. and Steiner, G. Human Behaviour: An Inventory of Scientific Findings. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1964.
- Bertrand, A. L. (ed.) Rural Sociology. New York: McGraw Hill, 1958.
- Borrie, W. D., The Cultural Integration of Immigrants. Paris: UNESCO Publication 1959.
- Brim, Orville G. Jr. Sociology and the Field of Education. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1958.
- Citreon, H. A. European Emigration Overseas Past and Future. The Hague: Martinus Nijhoff, 1951.
- Coelho, G. V. Changing Images of America--A study of Indian Students' Perceptions. Glencoe: The Free Press, 1958.
- Cressey, Donald R. (ed.) The Prison: Studies in Institutional Organization and Change. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961.
- Das, R. K. Hindustani Workers on the Pacific Coast. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter Co. 1932.
- Davis, Kingsley, Human Society. New York: MacMillan, 1965.
- _____. The Population of India and Pakistan. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1951.
- Desai, Rashmi, Indian Immigrants in Britain. London: Oxford University Press, 1963.

- Dubois, C. Foreign Students and Higher Education in the United States. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1956.
- Durkheim, E. Suicide. Glencoe: The Free Press, 1951.
- _____. Les Formes élémentaires de la religion. Paris: F. Alcan, 1912.
- Fairchild, H. P. Immigration: A World Movement and its American Significance. New York: McMillan and Co., 1925.
- Gangnlee, N. Indians in the Empire Overseas. London: New India Publishing House, 1947.
- Gillion, K. L. Fiji's Indian Migrants--A History to the end of Indenture in 1920. Melbourne: Oxford University Press, 1962.
- Goffman, E. Asylums. Garden City: Doubleday and Co., 1961.
- Grambs, Jean Dresden. Schools, Scholars and Society. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1965.
- Handlin, Oscar, The Uprooted. New York: Grosset and Dunlop, 1951.
- Hansen, M. L. The Atlantic Migration. 1607-1860. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1940.
- Hollingshead, H. B. and Redlich, F. C. Social Class and Mental Illness: A Community Study. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1958.
- Jones, M. A. American Immigration. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960.
- Kabir, H. Education in New India. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955.
- Klass, Morton, East Indians in Trinidad--A Study of Cultural Persistence. New York: Columbia University Press, 1961.
- Kondapi, C. Indian Overseas, 1838-1949. New Delhi: Indian Council of World Affairs, 1949.
- Kosa, J. Land of Choice: The Hungarians in Canada. (Toronto, 1957).

Kuper, Hilda, Indian People in Natal. Natal:
The University Press, 1960.

Lenski, Gerhard, The Religious Factor: A Sociological
Study of Religion's Influence on Politics,
Economic and Family Life. New York: Doubleday and
Company Inc., 1961.

Lipset, S. M., Bendix, R. Social Mobility in Industrial
Society. Berkley: University of California Press, 1960.

Mannheim, Karl, Ideology and Utopia, New York: Harcourt,
Brace and World, Inc., 1932.

Mayer, A. C., Indians in Fiji, London: Oxford University
Press, 1963.

Morris, R. T., The Two Way Mirror: National Status in
Foreign Students' Adjustment, Minneapolis: University
of Minnesota Press, 1966.

Mukerjee, Radhakamal, Migrant Asia, Rome: Tipografia
Failli, 1936.

Park, R. E., Burgess E. W., Introduction to the Science
of Sociology, Chicago, 1921.

_____, and Millar, H. A., Old World Traits Transplanted,
New York: Harper Brothers, 1921.

Petersen, William, Planned Migration: The Social
Determinents of Dutch Canadian Movement, Berkley:
University of California, 1955.

Price, C. A. (ed.), The Study of Immigrants in Australia,
Proceedings of Conference on Immigration Research.
The Australian National University, Canberra, 1960.

Reissman, Leonard, Class in American Society, Glencoe:
The Free Press, 1959.

Sewell, W. H., and O. M. Davidson, Scandanavian Students
on an American Campus, Minneapolis: University of
Minnesota Press, 1954.

Shils, Edward, The Intellectual Between Tradition and
Modernity: The Indian Situation, Comparative
Studies in Sociology and History Supplement I,
Morton and Co. The Hague: Netherlands, 1961.

_____, The Present State of American Sociology, Glencoe:
The Free Press, 1948.

- Steinberg, S. H. The Statesman's Year Book 1965-66
One-Hundred And Second Annual Publication.
New York: MacMillan and Co. Ltd., 1965.
- Stonequist, E. V., The Marginal Man: A Study in
Personality and Cluture Conflict, New York:
Charles Scribner and Sons, 1937.
- Thomas, Brinley, International Migration and
Economic Development, Paris: UNESCO Publications,
1961.
- Thomas, W. I., and Znaniecki, The Polish Peasant in
Europe and America, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1927.
- Turner, Roy (ed.), India's Urban Future. Los Angeles:
University of California Press, 1962.
- Useem, John; Useem, Ruth H. Western Educated Man in
India: A Study of Social Rules and Influence.
New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1955.
- Weber, Max, The Prostestant Ethic and the Spirit of
Capitalism, translated by Talcott Parsons, London:
George Allen and Urwin, 1930.

ARTICLES

- Angus, H. F., "People of East Indian Origin", Encyclopedia
Canadiana, Vol. 3, pp. 331-332.
- Becker, Howard, "Schools and Systems of Stratification"
in A. H. Halsey et al (eds.) Education, Economy and
Society. Glencoe: The Free Press, 1961.
- Beijer, G., "Selective Migration for and 'Brain Drain'
from Latin America", International Migration, Vol. IV,
No. 1, 1966, pp. 28-36.
- Besterman, W. M. "Immigrations as a means of obtaining
needed skills and stimulating Economic and Social
Advancement", International Migration, Vol. III,
No. 4, 1965, pp. 204-208.
- Brim, Orville G. Jr. "Attitude Content - Intensity and
Probability Expectations". American Sociological
Review, Vol. 68, February, 1955.
- Card, B. Y., "Population trends related to Alberta's
Teacher demand Supply". Edmonton: Faculty of
Education, University of Alberta, 1952.

- Dadabhay, Yusuf, "Circuitons Assimilation Among Rural Hindustanis in California". Social Forces, Vol. 33, 1954.
- Davids, Leo, "The East Indian Family Overseas", Social and Economic Studies, Vol. 13, Nos. 1-4, 1964.
- Davie, Maurice R., "Immigration ad- Migration", Encyclopedia Americana, Vol. 14.
- Dixon, Ronald B., "Migrations", Encyclopedia of Social Sciences. Vol. X, New York: The McMillan Company, 1933.
- D'Souza, Victor S., "Social Grading of Occupations in India". Sociological Review, July, 1962.
- Dukes, W. F., "Psychological Studies of Values", Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 52, 1955.
- Eisenstadt, S. N., "Analyses of Patterns of Immigration and Absorption of Immigrants". Population Studies, London; Vol. VII, No. 2, November, 1953.
- Hall, Oswald, "The Stages of a Medical Career", American Journal of Sociology. Vol. XLII, March, 1948.
- Hodgkin, Mary C., "The Role of Kinship and Authority Patterns in the Cross-Cultural Education of Asian Students", Sociology of Education. Vol. 37, Fall, 1963.
- Hughes, E. C., "Institutional Office and the Person", American Journal of Sociology, Vol. XLIII, November, 1937.
- Jones, Frank E., "The Social Origins of High School Teachers in a Canadian City". The Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science, Vol. 29, November, 1963.
- Kenkel, W. F., "The Relationship between Status Consistency and Politico-Economic Attitudes", American Sociological Review, Vol. XXI, 1956.
- Kirby, E., "Social Mobility and Mental Illness". American Sociological Review, Vol. XIX, 1954.
- Lawless, D. J., "The Emigration of British Graduates to Canada," Occupational Psychology, Vol. 39, No. 2, April, 1965.
- Lenski, G. E., "Social Participation and Status Crystallization," American Sociological Review, XXI, 1956.

- McKenzie, R. D., "Oriental Immigration," in Encyclopedia of Social Sciences, New York: The McMillan Company, October, 1933, Vol. II.
- Ossenberg, Richard J. "The Social Integration of Post-War Immigrants in Montreal and Toronto." The Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology, Vol. I, No. 4, November, 1964.
- Oteiza, Enrique, "Emigration of Engineers from Argentina: A case of Latin American 'Brain Drain'". International Labour Review, Vol. 42, No. 6, December, 1965.
- Park, R. E., "Human Migration and The Marginal Man", American Journal of Sociology, XXXIII, May, 1928.
- Petersen, William, "A General Typology of Migration", The Politics of Population, London; Victor Gollanez Ltd., 1964, pp. 271-290.
- Powell, Alan T., "Differentials in the Integration Process of Dutch and Italian Immigrants in Edmonton", unpublsh M.A. Thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1964.
- Richmond, Anthony, "Social Mobility of Immigrants in Canada," Population Studies, Vol. XVIII, 1964-1965.
- Selby, H. A. and C. M. Wood, "Foreign Students at a High-Pressure University" Sociology of Education, Vol. 39, No. 2, Spring, 1966.
- Seligman, Edwin R. A., "Immigration", Encyclopedia of Social Sciences Vol. VII.
- Selznick, Philip, "Foundation of the Theory of Organizations," in Amitai Etzioni (ed.) Complex Organization: A Sociological Reader, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964.
- Simons, George, "There is a Brain Gain for Canada," Canadian Business, April, 1966.
- Smith, Marian W., "Sikhs and Growth of Sikhism," Encyclopedia Americana, (New York: Rand, McNally and Company) 1963 edition, Vol. 24.
- Sovani, N. V., Pradhan Kusam, "Occupational Mobility in Poona City between Three Generations." The Indian Economics Review, 2, 1955.

- Spindler George S., "Education in a Transforming American Culture", Harvard Education Review 25, Summer, 1955.
- Taft, R. A., "The Shared Frame of Reference Concept applied to the Assimilation of Immigrants," Human Relations, Vol. VI, 1957.
- Thomas, Brimley, "International Movement of Capital And Labour Since 1945." International Labour Review, Vol. LXXIV, No. 3, September, 1956.
- _____, "Trends in the International Migration of Skilled Manpower," Migration (Geneva), 1961, Vol. I, No. 3.
- Timlin, M. F., "Canadian Immigration Policy: An Analysis", International Migration, Vol. III, No. 1-2, 1965.
- Wood, Donald, "The Immigrants in the Towns," in J. A. G. Griffiths, et al. (eds.) Coloured Immigrants in Britain, London: Oxford University Press, 1960.
- Zubryzeki, J., "Sociological Methods for the Study of Immigrant Adjustment," in The Study of Immigrants in Australia. Canberra: Australia National University Press, 1960.

REPORTS AND THESES

- Card, B. Y. et al. The Metis in Alberta's Society, Edmonton: University of Alberta, 1963.
- Government of Canada, Department of Citizenship and Immigration. Annual Report 1962-63, Ottawa, 1963.
- _____, Immigration Statistics - 1965, Ottawa, 1965.
- _____, Department of Labour, The Migration of Professional Workers Into and Out of Canada, 1946-1960, Ottawa, 1961.
- Government of India, Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, India, 1964. Faridabad: Government of India Press, 1964.
- Jones, A. Pauline, "Integration Setting and Need For Achievement", unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1965.

- Mayer, A. C., A Report on East Indian Community in Vancouver, a working paper (mimeographed)
Vancouver: Institute of Social and Economic Research, University of British Columbia, 1959.
- Powell, Alan T., "Differentials in the Integration Process of Dutch and Italian Immigrants in Edmonton". Unpublished Master's thesis
University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1964.
- Province of Alberta, Department of Education, Annual Reports for the years 1955 to 1965.
- Province of Alberta, Department of Highways. Within Our Borders, Edmonton, 1966.
- Province of Alberta, Department of Municipal Affairs, Annual Report - 1964, Edmonton, 1966.
- Schultz, Wolfgang, M., "The Definition and Identification of Slow-Growing Regions." An unpublished paper, read by Professor Schultz, Department of Agricultural Economics University of Alberta, Edmonton at the Symposium, "Stimulants to Social and Economic Development in Slow Growing Regions," September 6-9, 1966, Banff, Alberta.
- Sillito, M. T., and D. B. Black, The Alberta Teaching Force, September, 1964, Edmonton Teachers' Association, 1965.
- Strong, Mary, "Social Class and Aspiration among Students". Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1963.
- The International Migration Digest, Vol. 1, Nos. 1-2, 1964. University of Alberta.
- University of Alberta, "The Teacher Shortage in Alberta", a brief prepared by the Faculty of Education, Edmonton, 1953.
- University of London, "Motivation to Migration: Studies of applicants in London, Cologne and Dublin." Unpublished M. A. Thesis, 1964.
- UNESCO, World Literacy at Mid-Century; Monographs on Fundamental Education, Paris, 1957.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Edmonton, Alberta
June 22, 1965.

Dear _____:

Will you please help me in a study in which I am sure you will be quite interested if not vitally concerned. I am undertaking a survey of teachers from India who teach in Alberta schools. Will you please complete the enclosed questionnaire, which you can do easily from your own knowledge and experience. Since the success of the survey depends entirely on the co-operation given by teachers from India, I hope that you will respond to all the items fully, and that I might have your reply by return mail, if possible. Your replies will be regarded with strictest confidence and your anonymity fully preserved. If you wish a summary of the findings, please indicate your desire in the space provided on the questionnaire.

I wish to express my thanks and appreciation for the effort which I realize your cooperation in this study entails, though I hope this will be justified by the significance of the study.

As indicated on the attached supporting letter, will you please mail your reply to me in the enclosed stamped and addressed envelope.

Sincerely,

R. S. Pannu
c/o Department of Educational
Foundations
Room 440
New Education Building
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta

FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL
FOUNDATIONS

University of Alberta,
Edmonton, Alberta,
June 22, 1965.

To Teachers From India in Alberta Schools:

Mr. R. S. Pannu of Edmonton is currently working on an M.Ed. Program in the Department of Educational Foundations. As part of the requirements for that program he is making an investigation of some of the problems faced by teachers from India who come to Alberta to teach. This investigation is approved by our Department. The returns from each teacher will be kept in the strictest confidence. The report of findings will deal only with teachers from India as a group with no mention of individual names.

We request your cooperation in completing the attached questionnaire and returning it as soon as possible to

Mr. R. S. Pannu,
c/o Department of Educational Foundations
Room 440, Education Building
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta

Yours sincerely,

Signed: B. E. Walker,

Head,
Department of Educational Foundations.

SOCIOLOGICAL SURVEY OF TEACHERS FROM INDIA TEACHING IN
ALBERTA

PART I - SCHOOL

1. School District _____
2. Division _____
3. Name of school (if more than one in district) _____
4. Kind of school: Elementary-Junior High, I-IX ()
Elementary, I-VI only () Junior-Senior High, VII-XII ()
Junior High, VII-IX only () All Grades, I-XII ()
Senior High, X-XII only () Other: (Specify) _____
5. Number of full-time teachers including principal:
1 - 4 () 10 - 14 () 20 - 24 () 35 - 44 ()
5 - 9 () 15 - 19 () 25 - 34 () 45 or more ()

PART II - TEACHER

Check () one in each of the items following.

6. Highest teaching certificate:
Standard E () Junior E () Professional ()
Standard S () First Class () 2nd class or letter of authority ()
Other: (specify) _____
7. Source of first teaching certificate:
India () Other British Commonwealth ()
Other Canadian () Other country ()
Alberta ()
8. Gross annual salary before deductions:
\$3,000 - 3,499 () 5,000 - 5,499 () 7,000 - 7,499 () 9,000-9,499 ()
3,500 - 3,999 () 5,500 - 5,999 () 7,500 - 7,999 () 9500 or more ()
4,000 - 4,499 () 6,000 - 6,499 () 8,000 - 8,499 ()
4,500 - 4,999 () 6,500 - 6,999 () 8,500 - 8,999 ()
9. Year of birth:
Before 1900 () 1910 - 1919 () 1930 - 1939 ()
1900 - 1909 () 1920 - 1929 () 1940 - 1949 ()
10. Sex: Male () Female ()
11. Marital Status:
Single () Widowed, separated or divorced ()
Married () Member of religious order ()
12. Years of teacher education for which you are being paid:
One year () 3 to 3.9 years () 6 and over years ()
1.1 to 1.9 years 4 to 4.9 years ()
2 to 2.9 years 5 to 5.9 years ()
13. Teaching position:
Regular classroom teacher ()
Department head teaching more than half-time ()
Vice-principal teaching more than half-time ()
Principal teaching more than half-time ()
Department head teaching half-time or less ()

13. (continued)
Vice-principal teaching half-time or less ()
Principal teaching half-time or less ()
Other: (specify) _____
14. Teaching level. On the basis of the grades you teach, are you primarily: An elementary teacher (), A senior high school teacher (), A junior high school teacher () Other: _____
15. What subjects do you teach if you are a Junior or Senior high school teacher:
Science-Mathematics () Physical Education ()
Language-Social Studies () Chemistry-Physics ()
Mathematics () Biology-Chemistry ()
16. Teaching experience as of June 30, 1965.
One year Five years ()
Two years Six to fifteen years ()
Three years () Sixteen to twenty-five years ()
Four years () Twenty-six or more years ()
17. ATA membership participation:
Regularly attend local meeting ()
Regularly attend sublocal meetings ()
Seldom attend local meetings ()
Seldom attend sublocal meetings ()
ATA Executive position held in 1964-65 ()
ATA Committee position held in 1964-65 ()
Never attend local or sublocal meetings ()
Have little interest in ATA affairs ()
Am not interested in ATA affairs ()

PART III - ORIGINS AND BACKGROUND

18. What part of India do you come from? (Write name of Province) _____
19. What area? (Please check one)
Village () Town/small city () Large city ()
20. What kind of teaching position did you hold in India or elsewhere just before coming to Canada? (Please check one) Underline other teaching positions that you have held in India or elsewhere.
Regular classroom teacher () Vice-Principal () None ()
Department/subject head () Lecturer ()
Principal/Headmaster () Other: (specify) _____
21. Level of institution where you taught in India or elsewhere just before leaving for Canada? Underline all other kinds of institutions where you have taught.
Elementary school () College (Teacher training) ()
Junior high (Middle) school () Elementary Teacher Tr. Inst. ()
Senior high (H.Secondary) school () Other: (specify) _____ ()
College (Arts/Science) () None ()
22. Teaching experience as at time of coming to Canada:
One year () Four years () Sixteen to twenty-five ()
Two years () Five years () years ()
Three Years () Six to fifteen years () None ()

23. In what countries other than India have you taught before arriving in Canada? List countries and give the approximate years of teaching in each.

Country	Years of Teaching
1. _____	_____
2. _____	_____
3. _____	_____
4. _____	_____
5. None (check) _____ ()	

24. In what countries other than India have you lived before immigrating to Canada? List the countries, the length of stay in each, and your position or capacity (e.g. student, engineer, labourer, soldier, etc.

Country	Length of Stay	Capacity
1. _____	_____	_____
2. _____	_____	_____
3. _____	_____	_____
4. None (check) _____ ()		

25. What occupations or professions did you have before entering the teaching profession? List.

1. _____	3. _____	5. None ()
2. _____	4. _____	

26. Was any member of your family or a close relative already living in some foreign country when you migrated to Canada? (check) Yes() No()

27. If the answer to Question 26 is (yes) then give the name of the countries where they are living and the relationship of these people to you.

Country	Relationship to you
1. _____ 3 _____	1. _____ 3 _____
2. _____ 4 _____	2. _____ 4 _____

28. In the table that follows, please fill in the information under the different headings suggested. After filling in the information under the different headings suggested. After filling in the information for your Father and Mother choose your five immediate relatives most important to you, i.e., those whose approval and goodwill you cherish most (e.g., your brothers, sisters and their husbands, your cousins, your wife's relatives and so forth) and fill in the information for each one of them. Do not mention their names. Please indicate their sex by checking M() for male and F() for female. Give their approximate age if they are still living. Indicate the highest school grade they have completed and further training such as vocational or university. State the occupation of the persons at the time they were most influential in your life. Also give the country where these people live or lived.

Relationship to You	Sex	Age	Highest Grade Compl.	Further training (Voc/univ/other)	Occupation	Country where living
Father _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Mother _____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	M()	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	F()	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	M()	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	F()	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	M()	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	F()	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	M()	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	F()	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

PART IV

MOTIVATIONS FOR COMING TO CANADA, INCLUDING RECRUITMENT AND PLACEMENT
IN ALBERTA SCHOOLS

29. Individuals as well as groups are motivated by a complex of factors and desires which determine their decision to migrate from one place to another and from one country to another. Some of the factors that might have influenced the immigration of the teachers from India into Canada are suggested in the list below. CHECK THOSE that you consider relevant to the following question: WHAT WERE THE REASONS THAT MOTIVATED YOUR DECISION TO COME TO CANADA?

1. Better salaries to teachers in Canada: financial gain. ()
2. Possibility that the teaching job in Canada will provide more opportunities for the fururance of my academic and professional qualifications. ()
3. Desire to escape from a society whose social values and practices I have found difficulty in accepting. ()
4. A way for me to be able to afford a trip through this part of the world. ()
5. To get broader experience in the field of education and teaching. ()
6. To get away from the poor working conditions in the teaching profession at home. ()
7. To avail myself the good opportunity to visit the Western World--a fulfillment of an ambition. ()
8. To get away from low salaries and low status of the teaching profession in India. ()
9. To get first-hand experience in the educational set-up here so that on my return home I can really contribute new ideas to the teaching profession and the educational system. ()
10. To escape from the educational climate whre initiative of the individual is curbed and the weight of tradition is permitted to slow down the process of change. ()
11. To acquire a comparative and critical understanding of different educational practices and policies with the purpose of assessing their relevance for the educational system in India. ()
12. To join my family (parents) who are settled in Canada. ()
13. To get away from political favoritism and graft. ()
14. I felt like a stranger in my own country; I felt like a social isolate. ()
15. For some personal reasons that I would not like to discuss here. ()
16. Others: (specify) _____

Of the factors that you have just checked put down the NUMBER (in the brackets provided below) of the:

Most important factor () Least important factor ()
 Second most important factor () Second least important factor ()

CERTIFICATION IN ALBERTA

30. What two courses did you take for the purpose of certification in Alberta

Course (Name and Number) Year when taken

1. _____
2. _____

31. How would you rate each course for its usefulness in adapting to the Alberta situation? Add comments which show how the course was useful or not useful.

1. Course (Name and Number) _____ (Check one space for each course)	2. Course (Name and Number) _____ (Check 1 space for ea. course)
Extremely useful ()	Extremely useful ()
Of considerable use ()	Of considerable use ()
Of limited use ()	Of limited use ()
Of very limited use ()	Of very limited use ()
Not useful at all ()	Not useful at all ()
Comments: Course #1 _____	Comments: Course No. 2 _____

32. If you had full freedom to select your courses for certification, what courses would you have taken? (Check)

The same as the two above () Neither of the two above ()
One of the two above ()

33. What kind of courses would you recommend?

Methods courses (suitable for the individual teacher) ()	Courses specially designed for foreign teachers ()
At least one course in <u>speech</u> ()	Others: (Specify) _____
Some suitable courses in _____	_____
Sociology? ()	_____

34. After the arrival of the teacher from India in Alberta when should he be required to take these courses. Add comments to explain rationale behind your choice of one of the alternatives that follow:

The first summer after his arrival in Alberta as a teacher. ()
After he has taught at least for one year in Alberta. ()
The teacher should be given the freedom to choose to take these courses any time during the first two years of his teaching in Alberta. ()
The present requirements in this regard are quite satisfactory ()
Other: (specify) _____
Comments: _____

RECRUITMENT TO ALBERTA SCHOOLS

Please check either 'Yes' or 'No' to the following questions:

35. I obtained a teaching position in Alberta prior to my immigration to Canada . Yes () No ()

36. I immigrated to Canada first and then obtained my first teaching position in Alberta. Yes () No ()

37. In what other provinces in Canada did you teach before accepting a teaching position in Alberta? Name the provinces.

1. _____ 2. _____ 3. None (Check) ()

Reasons for moving: comment briefly: _____

38. What were the reasons for your getting a teaching position in the Province of Alberta? (Check one or more factors)

1. I had some friends from India already teaching in the province. ()

2. It was the first province in Canada which came to my attention as trying to recruit teachers from overseas. ()

3. Compared to other provinces in Canada, Alberta appeared to have higher salaries. ()

4. The Department of Education of Alberta was prompt in giving me the certification which was necessary (and also helpful) in securing a teaching position here. ()

5. Others: (specify) _____

In the brackets below write the number of : The most important factor()
The least important factor()

39. What were the sources of information which proved helpful and valuable in getting you a teaching job in Alberta? (Check one or more factors)

1. Foreign and Indian educational journals. ()

2. Teachers from India working Alberta, some of whom were my friends. ()

3. Advertisement of these positions in some of the Indian English Dailies. ()

4. Relatives already settled in Canada. ()

5. Canadian High Commissioner's Office (its information service in New Delhi, India). ()

Others: (specify) 6. _____ ()

7. _____ ()

8. _____ ()

In each of the brackets below, write the NUMBER of the:

Most important factor () Least important factor ()

RETENTION IN ALBERTA TEACHING PROFESSION

40. After being a teacher in Alberta for one or more years now, do you consider that you stand an equal chance with Canadian colleagues, assuming approximate equality in qualifications and competence, in securing a teaching job in any place in Alberta? Yes () No () Don't Know () If answer is NO, give reasons: _____
41. Assuming you are a "landed immigrant" and thus can stay in Canada as long as you choose do you plan to stay in teaching in Alberta until retirement? Yes () No () Undecided () If answer is NO, give reasons: _____
42. In spite of the general complaint about 'excessive strain' in teaching, do you plan to stay in teaching as your life-long profession? Yes () No () Undecided ()
43. Recognizing that it is very difficult to say anything with complete certainty about your future plans, would you make Canada your permanent home? Yes () No () Undecided () If answer is No, give reasons: _____
44. Do you plan to leave teaching to obtain advanced education at some future date? Yes () No () Undecided ()
45. For what academic degree are you working at present? in what university _____ Name of degree sought _____
Field _____
46. What highest academic degree is your eventual goal? _____
Probable field of study _____
47. What professional level of teaching or educational work is your eventual goal? Guidance counsellor ()
Primary school () Superintendent ()
Elementary " () Junior College instructor ()
Junior High school () University professor ()
Senior High school () Other: (specify) _____
Principal ()

NEW EXPERIENCES AND PROBLEMS

48. It would be hardly surprising if teachers coming from a non-English-speaking foreign country, especially from the non-Western World, have some new and interesting experiences and encounter problems when they migrate into an entirely different cultural, social and climatic environment such as that of Canada. Below are some of the problems listed which we think might have come up during your work and stay in Alberta communities. This is by no means a complete list and you should feel free to add or amend this list. Please check the problems in the list that you consider relevant to your own experiences as one of the actors in the situation under study. Add more problems at the end of this list. Any additional COMMENTS in this regard would be most welcome.

1. Harsh climate: difficult to get used to. ()
2. Excessive work-load. ()
3. General lack of discipline in the classrooms; so different from the situation in schools in India. ()
4. Feeling of loneliness; of being a stranger in the community. ()
5. General lack of interest of students in school work; a feeling of frustration (in the teacher) resulting from this. ()
6. Critical attitude of public and parents towards the teachers. ()
7. Occasional home-sickness. ()
8. Problems in communication, especially during the first year of teaching, due to language difficulties such as: different accent, pronunciation, use of different idiom in spoken language, unfamiliarity with slang expressions, etc. ()
9. Differences in teaching methods used in the classroom. ()
10. Difficulty in getting used to Canadian food (especially during the first year) ()
11. Too much interruption by ATA and other professional meetings during the school year. ()
12. Pressure from Department of Education for taking the certification courses during the very first summer after arrival. ()
13. Others: (specify) _____

Of the problems that you have just checked put down the NUMBER (in the brackets provided below) of the:

Most important	()	Least important	()
Second most important	()	Second least important	()

Additional comments: _____

49. What are your plans for next year?

1. Teaching in Alberta. ()
2. Going to University as a full-time student. ()
3. Leaving this province to teach in some other province in Canada ()
4. Return to India temporarily. ()
5. Return to India permanently. ()
6. Other: (specify) _____

If your answer is (4 or 5) give reasons for leaving for India.

50. If you are going to be teaching in some other Canadian province next year, please give the following information:

Name of province _____
Kind of institution _____
Teaching position _____
Reasons for leaving Alberta _____

51. As you contemplate your future career, for what reasons would you return to India:

1. To retire after teaching. ()
2. Respond to the call or need of my family. ()
3. To be with my parents in their old age. ()
4. For reasons of personal health. ()
5. To be in the cultural milieu of India. ()
6. To take a position of responsibility in India in education or in some other field. ()
7. To contribute my Alberta experience to my countrymen. ()
8. Other reasons: _____

Put the NUMBER (in the brackets provided below) of the:
Most important reason () Least important reason ()
Second most important reason () Second least important reason ()

52. What year did you start teaching in Alberta _____

53. At what address can you be contacted during this summer?

PLACE _____
P. O. Box No./Street Address _____
Telephone number (if known) _____

54. Do you wish a copy of the summary of the findings of this study?
Yes () No () If answer is yes, to what address should it be mailed?

APPENDIX B

THE PROPORTION OF "TEACHERS AND PROFESSORS"
IN THE GROSS IMMIGRATION OF PROFESSIONAL
WORKERS TO CANADA BETWEEN 1946-65.^a

Year	Total Professional Migrants entering Canada	Number of Teachers and Professors	Teachers and Pro- fessors as % of All Professional Migrants
1946	1,368	149	10.9
1947	1,954	219	11.2
1948	2,288	256	11.2
1949	1,879	210	11.2
1950	1,628	182	11.2
1951	4,001	448	11.2
1952	7,054	791	11.2
1953	8,845	756	8.5
1954	8,350	996	11.9
1955	7,159	943	13.2
1956	9,343	1,028	11.0
1957	16,040	1,838	11.5
1958	7,553	1,300	17.2
1959	6,947	1,250	18.0
1960	7,436	1,396	18.8
1961	<u>6,696</u> 98,541	<u>1,480</u> 13,242	22.1
1962	8,218	1,528	18.6
1963	9,640	1,861	19.3
1964	11,965	2,554	21.4
1965	<u>16,654</u> 46,477	<u>3,623</u> 9,566	21.8
TOTAL	145,018	22,808 Ave.	% 15.8

^aSources of Data: Data for years 1946-61 were taken from "Mi-
grants in Professional Occupations" in The
International Migration Digest, Vol. 1, No. 1,
Spring 1964 Fig. 2, p. 83; for years 1962
to 1964 inclusive, Annual Reports of the
Department of Citizenship and Immigration
were used. For 1965, Immigration Statistics,
1965 of the Department of Citizenship and
Immigration of Canada were used.

APPENDIX C

List of School Divisions or Districts where respondents were employed in June, 1965.

I. Countries

No. of Teachers

1.	Stettler #6	2	
2.	Thorhild #7	1	
3.	Fortymiles #8	1	
4.	Beaver #9	1	
5.	Barrhead #11	2	
6.	Athabasca #12	1	
7.	Sturgeon #15	3	
8.	St. Paul #19	4	
9.	Strathcona #20	1	
10.	Red Deer #23	1	
11.	Lac Ste. Anne #28	6	23

II. School Divisions

1.	Taber #6	1	
2.	Peace River #10	4	
3.	Edson #12	1	
4.	Rocky Mountain House #15	2	
5.	Stony Plain #23	1	
6.	Pincher Creek #29	1	
7.	Wainwright #32	1	
8.	Bonnyville #46	3	
9.	Spirit River #47	3	
10.	High Prairie #48	12	
11.	Fairview #50	1	
12.	Lac la Biche #51	1	
13.	Fort Vermilion #52	2	33

III. School Districts

1.	Calgary Separate C.S. 1	1	
2.	Edmonton Public #7	3	
3.	Wainwright C.S. #31	1	
4.	Vermilion C.S. #97	2	
5.	Wetaskiwin #264	1	
6.	Stettler #1475	1	
7.	Brooks #2092	3	
8.	St. Paul #2228	1	
9.	Greisbach #5028	1	
10.	Biggin Hill #5029	1	15

APPENDIX D

A NOTE ON CLASSIFICATION OF INDIAN OCCUPATIONS

The social class background of the Indian teachers was determined from the classification of their fathers' occupations into occupational prestige categories. The respondents were asked to report the main occupation of their fathers. These reported occupations were arranged into a modified Hollingshead's seven category socio-economic scale.¹ Hollingshead's socio-economic scale, however, can not be justifiably used to rank occupations in two social structures so radically different as are represented by the highly industrialized American society and the primarily agricultural society of India. The high degree of occupational differentiation and proliferation that is found in a highly industrialized society is not found in a society with an essentially agrarian economy. Ideally, therefore, an occupational scale prepared in India would be the only relevant one to use to rank the respondents' fathers' occupations. The construction of one such occupational prestige scale has recently been attempted in India by D'Souza.² He had thirty different Indian occupations graded into a rank order; these he divided into seven prestige categories, and then compared the prestige ratings of occupations in India and Britain³.

1

A.B. Hollingshead and F.C. Redlich, Social Class and Mental Illness (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1958), pp. 390-91. His seven categories in unmodified form are: (1) executives and proprietors of large concerns, and major professionals, (2) managers and proprietors of medium-sized businesses and lesser professions, (3) administrative personnel of large concerns, owners of small independent business, and semi-professionals, (4) owners of little businesses, clerical and sales workers, and technicians, (5) skilled workers, (6) semi-skilled workers, and (7) unskilled workers.

2

Victor S. D'Souza, "Social Grading of Occupations in India", Sociological Review, July 1962, 10, 2. pp. 145-159.

3

John Hall and D.C. Jones: "Social Grading of Occupations", British Journal of Sociology, vol. 1, No. 1, March 1950. pp. 31-35

He found "that there is a high degree of agreement in the social grading of occupations in England and India. As it is, the coefficient of rank correlation between the two rankings is as high as .975."⁴ With regard to the number of prestige categories, both the studies use a 7-class occupational breakdown, as is also the case in Hollingshead's scale. But a more remarkable feature of this comparison is that "only in 13 cases have the occupations been allotted to different prestige categories and still more so is the fact that in all these cases the displacement is just by one category."⁵ In spite of the high coefficient of rank correlation between the Indian and the British ranking, however, which makes it quite useful for international comparison, the Indian scale suffers from a serious drawback. The number of occupations included in it is very small; it is only 30 as compared to 90 in NORC scale, 353 in Blishen's scale, and close to 400 in Hollingshead's scale. Moreover, the occupations in the scale under discussion are not very well defined. For these reasons, it is not possible to use this scale by itself, to stratify different occupations into a number of meaningful categories. However, the scale can be used, with considerable advantage, in conjunction with another scale to categorize the occupations pertaining to Indian social structure. The rank correlation between British, American and Canadian occupational scales is quite high.⁶ And, as pointed out earlier, D'Souza found a high rank correlation (.975) between the British and Indian occupational score rankings also. Therefore, a high rank correlation between American scales and the D'Souza Indian occupational scale will also be expected to exist. Thus the use of Hollingshead's occupational scale in conjunction with D'Souza scale was considered justified for classifying Indian occupations.

⁴D'Souza, op. cit., p. 158.

⁵Ibid.

⁶B. R. Blishen, "The Construction and Use of An Occupational Clan Scale", in B. R. Blishen, et al., (eds.) The Canadian Society (Toronto: The University of Toronto Press, 1961), p. 479.

University of Alberta Library



0 1620 1066 9636

B29856